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ABSTRACT

Six national education goals to be achieved by the year 2000 were established by the federal government and the nation's governors in 1990. The five essays in this monograph examine some of the changes taking place in society and in schools and colleges that are related to the six goals. The "Introduction" (Marilyn Guy) is followed by "Communities within Community" (Dolores Escobar and Carol C. Mukhopadhyay), which discusses the multiple and integrated cultures that shape the environments of today's students. "Family and School Coalitions: Surmounting Obstacles" (Earline D. Kendall) explores issues connected with changes in family life and parent participation. "Collaborating To Improve Teacher Education: A Dean of Education's Perspective" (Iris M. Tiedt) highlights the need for education faculty to take the initiative in the process of incorporating the perspectives of teachers, business leaders, and community social workers into the total curriculum of preservice teachers. "Teaching and Teacher Education: An Institutional Challenge and Commitment" (Janet S. Gross) discusses teacher education and its redesign from the liberal arts faculty perspective. Finally, "Professional Development Schools and Teacher Education: Policies, Problems, and Possibilities" (Dale L. Lange) provides a historical analysis of the professional development school (PDS) model and relates some of the challenges and opportunities which face school-university partnerships that are attempting to establish PDSs. (IAH)

TEACHER ◆ EDUCATION ◆ MONOGRAPH ◆ NO. 16

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TEACHERS AND TEACHER EDUCATION:

Essays on the National Education Goals

Marilyn J. Guy,
Editor

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Essays on the National Education Goals

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Introduction

Marilyn J. Guy

While some of the research on education and teacher education has focused primarily on conditions in the elementary and secondary schools or on the quality of teachers and teacher education, other research has investigated the changes that have occurred in the family and living environment for children and youth in our nation and the effect that these changes have on students' success in school. There are increasing numbers of children of color, many of whom are also immigrant children, in our schools; increasing numbers of children who are living below the level of poverty; and increasing numbers of children who are living in single-parent homes or with adults who are not their parents. In addition, many urban communities have become increasingly violent places for youth to live. Even the schools, which were once havens of safety, have become sites where tens of thousands of children bring guns to school each year and many more bring knives.

A vision for education has been needed. In 1990, the administration and the nations' governors established six national education goals for the United States to achieve before the year 2000. These six goals are the following:

1. All children in America will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%.
3. American students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography; and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy.
4. U.S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics achievement.
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.

6. Every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a safe, disciplined environment conducive to learning.

The accomplishment of each of these six goals will affect how teachers and schools approach the tasks of teaching and learning during the decade of the '90s. Teachers are likely to change their approaches to teaching as well as their ways of working with others (i.e., parents, community social workers, business and industry employers, college/university teacher educators, prospective teachers, and other school personnel). Schools are likely to be organized in new and different ways to integrated community social service providers, to provide more opportunities for parents to participate in their children's education and to continue their own learning, and to give teachers different opportunities for leadership and service.

The six goals will also influence the education of prospective teachers in our colleges and universities. As the national goals are further defined and the roles of teachers change, teacher education, both preservice and inservice, should also change. The purpose of this monograph is to examine five different perspectives of the changes in which K-12 schools and colleges and universities are beginning to engage.

The first two chapters examine both demographic shifts and the social and cultural context of the changing environments in which a greater and greater number of children and youth live. In the first chapter, Delores Escobar and Carol Mukopadhyay describe the multiple and integrated cultures that our children bring to our public schools. Sensitivity to the many different cultures in which students and teachers interact in their daily lives is essential to successful teaching and learning. Knowing and understanding and conditions in the lives of the children who are attending our schools assists teachers in creating a supportive school environment for children and their families: developing lessons suited to the children's experiences, selecting appropriate learning materials and activities, and knowing how to assess their academic progress. In the second chapter, Earline Kendal describes how childrens' families have changed and identifies new challenges and opportunities for parents to participate in their children's education.

The following three chapters present different perspectives of how colleges and universities are responding and should respond to meet the challenge of preparing a new generation of teachers who can be successful in teaching children and youth in this decade and beyond. Iris Tiedt, in the third chapter, describes the responsibility of the education faculty to reach beyond the university to engage classroom teachers, business and industry leaders, and community social workers in assisting the college faculty to develop the most appropriate courses and experiences for prospective teachers. Practical experiences from teachers in daily contact with children shape the questions through which the content of the methods courses is identified. Expectations for high school graduates from those in the world of work define levels of achievement and work-related skills to be taught in the P-12 schools. Finally, social service providers assist teacher educators in focusing attention on the needs of the whole child, who is developing socially, emotionally, physically, and morally, as well as academically, through his or her school years.

The fourth chapter, by Janet Gross, describes teacher education from the perspective of the liberal arts faculty. Since only 30-40% of the prospective teacher's courses are taken in the field of education, the liberal arts faculty, from whom prospective teachers take 60-70% of their courses, become very influential in the overall knowledge that prospective teachers learn. In addition, students learn powerful lessons in how to teach by observing the role models of college faculty in their liberal arts courses. Therefore, if the college or university is to be serious about reforming its teacher education program, the total university faculty must be involved in its redesign.

Finally, in the fifth chapter, Dale Lange describes some of the challenges and opportunities that higher education institutions and school districts are facing as they begin to create professional development schools as a site in which both prospective and current teachers can continue to enhance their professional knowledge and skill. As a new institution, the professional development school, is created, the complexities of funding and staffing need resolution. But more importantly, Dale Lange engages the reader in a historical analysis and philosophical debate on the advantages of a professional development school model over more traditional models for clinical experiences.

The intended audience for this monograph is college professors who are engaged in the education of preservice teachers, classroom teachers who serve as clinical professors or supervisors of prospective teachers in clinical settings, and other P-12 school and college personnel who are interested in understanding the need for teacher education reform and in creating the conditions in which children in the year 2000 can achieve the six nation education goals.

I wish to thank the authors of the individual chapters for their contributions to the monograph. Each author has presented a chapter that is supported by current research and is central to many of the debates on education reform. I also wish to thank those who reviewed the chapters and provided comments to our authors, Earline Kendall, Carol Ann Pesola, Nancy Quisenberry, and Jay Sugarman. Finally, I would like to thank the editorial assistance received from the AACTE staff, Mary Dilworth, Judy Beck, and Deborah Rybicki. The best efforts of so many individuals are needed to complete a monograph such as this and each person involved contributed far more than 100%.

I

Communities Within Community

Dolores A. Escobar
Carol C. Mukhopadhyay

Introduction

It is often said that there really are no new ideas, only ideas in new contexts. So it is for the idea that teachers should be educated in ways that enable them to work effectively with their coworkers, supervisors, students, students' parents, and with the community in which the school is located. Literature related to successful schools and schooling abounds with references to school-community relations. Former President Bush's America 2000, one of the more recent calls for educational reform, proposed that "For schools to succeed, we must look beyond their classrooms to our communities and families. Schools will never be much better than the commitment of their communities. Each of our communities must become a place where learning can happen" (U.S. Department of Education, 1991, p. 2). Among the six National Education Goals are responsible citizenship and productive employment, obvious connections to the world beyond the schoolroom.

What does that world beyond the classroom look like? Who and what is "the community"? What understandings and techniques can help teachers relate to their communities? How much of the community is the responsibility of the teacher? What approaches to effective teaching and learning are necessary when the community surrounding the school is changing or is linguistically, racially, or ethnically different from that which is familiar to the teacher?

These and related questions are central to teacher education and teacher retention, particularly in locations where immigration and general demographic changes demand continued modification of professional behavior. The Metropolitan Life survey of the American teacher, 1990, which involved 1,007 teachers, indicated that while beginning teachers have optimistic expectations that all children can learn and that they, the teachers, can make a difference, almost half of those surveyed (47%) responded that "even the best teachers will find it difficult to teach more than two-thirds of their students" (Harris and Associates, 1990, p. 2). Furthermore, these teachers (75%) agreed with the statement that "many children come to school with so many problems that it's very difficult for them to be good students" (p. 2). While new teachers are obviously optimistic and idealistic, they are ambivalent about their chances for success; teachers "may be willing to 'write off' some of their students" (p. 2) . When these same teachers were surveyed after 1 year of teaching, they were less sure they could make a difference (68% as compared to 83%), and they were more sure that problems outside the school affected learning in school (47% as compared to 38%) (p.2).

The attitudes discerned through the 1990 survey are significant when coupled with findings of the 1989 survey, which focused upon career satisfaction. Teachers expressed modest improvement in satisfaction with the profession when findings were compared to a similar survey in 1985; nevertheless, approximately one-quarter of the teachers surveyed said they were "very or fairly likely to leave teaching in the next five years" (Harris and Associates, 1989, p. 136).

Certainly the circumstances that brought about the findings summarized above are complex. One inference that can be drawn is that we in teacher education have not adequately addressed the issue of preparing teachers to deal with the complexities of the community within which they must function. It is the purpose of this essay to offer teachers and teacher educators a framework, drawn from anthropology, for conceptualizing the community-school-teacher relationship, as well as a set of tools for acquiring this conceptual framework and using it to enhance teaching and learning in the multicultural classroom.

Literature on school reform commonly cites interaction within the community as essential for school improvement. It is postulated that only in this way can educators form partnerships to provide educational programs that are sensitive to student needs and that respond to community concerns. Yet, rarely is there a discussion of precisely who or what constitutes "the community." Most discussions represent community as an amorphous entity comprised of one or more of the following: government, corporate structures, geographic regions, civic associations, parents, extended families, ethnic groupings, even religious entities. While all of these and numerous additional entities certainly have some impact on and in some sense represent school constituencies, surely one cannot expect even the experienced teacher to be knowledgeable about, responsible for, or involved with all phases of civic life as a prerequisite for effective teaching.

More importantly, such characterizations of community tend to focus on identifiable, formally organized and physically bounded social groups, usually representing small, though often powerful, segments of society. In terms of classroom teaching and learning impact, such notions of community may be inaccurate or conceptually irrelevant representations of the social world from which students are drawn. Even so-called "ethnic communities," increasingly defined as "the" community with which teachers in the multicultural school must become more familiar, are more complex, diffuse, and diverse entities than commonly portrayed. This is not to imply that teachers should not attempt to understand ethnic communities. What we wish to emphasize is that teachers must have a conceptual framework for dealing with the heterogeneity of real communities.

Educational theorists have, of course, periodically attempted to construct a social description of community. John Dewey's concept of community, familiar to most educators, involved human interaction based upon a core of common values that were sensitive to individual need as well as the common good. Members of the community were to have had common experiences as a basis for communication necessary to accomplish a common goal or activity (Dewey, 1916). However, while Dewey's attention to "individual need" could theoretically encompass the diversity in the contemporary community, he assumed a commonality of values, shared notions of "common good," and a degree of social integration and interaction that hardly applies today. Instead, we are faced with a patchwork of social groupings, often isolated from one another, having multiple languages, religions, social histories, and experiences, and different immediate, if not fundamental, goals and priorities. Increasingly, the neighborhood that the school serves is a mere geographically bounded entity.

Implicitly, if not explicitly, in Dewey's community the role of the teacher included creation of an ideal community in the school where students were nurtured, where they developed intellectual freedom, and learned to live by the accepted code of democratic values. Thus, the school's function was to prepare citizens who were able and disposed to move the larger society closer to the ideal democratic community (Dewey, 1916).

While a number of Dewey's elements of community remain basic to the public school mission today, there is less agreement surrounding the issue of values education. Cultural pluralism, ethnic identity, and multicultural education were not concepts that complicated the educator's role in Dewey's era. Contemporary schooling calls for teachers and teacher educators to reconceptualize the concept of community and community-school relations if they are to interact with the social world that exists beyond the school in ways that enhance teaching and learning. The challenge is to develop a workable framework that does not make unreasonable demands upon teachers. We suggest that current anthropological conceptions of "culture," "education," "schooling," "multiple cultural competencies," and "ethnography" provide a useful alternative framework with which to begin this process.

Anthropological Concepts of Culture

Anthropological conceptions of culture, while originally rooted in small-scale, relatively homogeneous, physically bounded, often isolated communities, akin to that envisioned by Dewey, have evolved to the point where they are equally useful and applicable to modern, amorphous, complex societies, be they large ethnic groups, or relatively circumscribed, nontraditional smaller entities, such as corporations, hospitals, and schools. This is possible because the conception of culture rests as much on the notion of shared knowledge (beliefs, values) as it does on society (patterned and frequent direct interaction within a social group). Furthermore, modern technology no longer requires direct physical proximity for social interaction to occur. Instead, social networks can be formed and maintained by using telephones, computers, the postal service, VCRs, radio and television, and even more vicariously, through fictive relationships with television. Thus, cultural knowledge can be shared and transmitted, while social interaction can be maintained among people who are geographically quite dispersed.

The concept of culture, while variably defined within the discipline, generally embraces all that humans collectively create, thus emphasizing the fundamentally learned (versus biological) acquisition and transmission of cultural creations, and the socially shared and hence normative (versus idiosyncratic, individualistic) aspects of those creations. Clearly, humans have, over the millennia, created a vast array of cultural products, many of which continue to exist, albeit with modifications, today. New cultural products, often new combinations or creative modifications of earlier forms, continue to emerge, as those of us struggling to learn teen culture are profoundly aware.

To lay persons, and often even to advocates of multiculturalism in the school, culture consists primarily of observable, often tangible products. Most obvious are the actual material products of culture. They can be foods, tools, clothing, crafts, houses, transport vehicles, the kinds of artifacts that archaeologists typically discover and store in museums. These tend to be identified as *the* culture in culture contact situations, whether it involves direct personal contact, as in interaction with an ethnic community surrounding the school, or vicarious contact through the media. Multicultural celebrations now common in schools exemplify this view of culture. Increasingly, however, culture is recognized as encompassing nontangible, nonmaterial, but nevertheless observable, products. Examples might include relatively obvious patterned behavior such as religious rituals, marriage ceremonies, and language, as well as culturally constructed social groupings, such as churches, castes, labor unions, fraternities, and teachers. Less obvious but equally important social creations include extended families, flag salutes, reading groups, anthropologists, schools, or surrogate mothers.

Most difficult to grasp, however, but crucial in the present context, is the view of culture as intangible and not directly observable. Increasingly, anthropologists recognize that the essential core of culture consists of mental products or mental constructs: enormously complex sets of shared knowledge structures for interpreting, experiencing, and acting upon the world (Holland & Quinn, 1987). This conception of culture incorporates not only the values and beliefs of classic definitions but less comprehensive and more situation-specific guides to action, often referred to as cultural schemas, scenarios, plans, scripts, and routines.

For example, we have cultural scripts that govern how we greet a teacher in the morning, ask a question in a reading group, or discuss a topic. Differences in such cultural scripts can cause classroom difficulties. The Hawaii Kamehameha Early Education Program found contrasts in school and home communicative modes to be a source of problems that Hawaiian students were having on reading comprehension tests. Comparing the organization of talk in reading groups in the school setting to that which occurred in the homes of native Hawaiians, revealed a native verbal form termed the "talk story," which was characterized by overlapping speech, in which turns at talk were not allocated by a leader. In contrast, the school form was organized around the teacher, who allocated turns at talk, and overlapping speech was discouraged or even punished (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986).

Mental products of culture also include the vast array of cultural concepts and cultural categories embedded in and expressed through language. Such notions as hours, minutes, weeks, a date, holy water, an *A* or *F* grade, a good student, a nerd, a family, social studies, and arithmetic are cultural creations not found in nature.

Even apparently tangible or observable products of culture, such as a clock or a map, upon closer examination are mere manifestations of mental products of culture, and hence, unintelligible without the accompanying cultural knowledge that gives them meaning. Thus, a clock is culturally created and is a specific representation of something we term "time"; in turn part of a culturally specific and nonuniversal division into 52 weeks, each having 7 days, of 24 hours, each hour further arbitrarily divided into minutes (60) and seconds (60). Of course, to most of us the immense cultural knowledge underlying a mere physical clock seems obvious and natural, unless we have just arrived from a culture without clocks, such as that of the indigenous people of New Guinea; or one with 4-day weeks, such as traditional Ibo culture in Nigeria.

Similarly, observable patterned behavior, such as taking a test, or an observable social event, such as a school open house, rests equally on intangible cultural knowledge. Our cultural knowledge determines what constitutes a test and how one goes about doing tests, as well as such related concepts as cheating, grades, studying, or essay exams, which are themselves linked to broader cultural themes and beliefs. Even the simple phrase "going to school" references an enormously elaborate body of cultural knowledge focused around a mental concept: a school and related cultural notions of what constitutes knowledge, teaching, and learning.

Thus, to anthropologists, culture is like language—without knowing the culturally shared, often arbitrary, meanings behind the sets of sounds we call speech, or the designs we call writing, all we hear or see is totally unrecognizable and uninterpretable gibberish, as anyone encountering a foreign language for the first time is aware. For example, the Spanish language does not distinguish between the voiced and unvoiced forms of the sounds "S/Z". English does not make a distinction between aspirated and unaspirated forms of consonants such as "Th/T". Therefore, a native Spanish-speaking student initially might not hear the difference between the words "zip" and "sip" on a spelling test. These words would sound the same. Similarly, a native English speaker traveling to India would have difficulty hearing the difference between the Bengali words "kal," meaning time and "khal," meaning a canal. Furthermore, even when words are recognized as units, there is intrinsic relationship to the concept they represent. Hence, the sounds "perro" can as easily represent a furry animal that barks as the sounds "dog." Even the same English word can have different meanings among different microcultures. To most English speakers the adjective "bad" connotes negativity; among many adolescents "bad" means "good." Tapping the cultural meanings behind observable, tangible manifestations of culture, then, becomes the route to understanding and interpreting social behavior and material objects.

What is the implication of this view of culture for school-community interaction? It suggests that when children come from cultures distinct from that of teachers (or other staff), the potential for miscommunication and cultural dissonance is much more profound and subtle than the tangible culture perspective would indicate. It also suggests, since much of culture resides in people's heads rather than in observable behavior or tangible artifacts, the absence of such cultural markers need not signal the absence of cultural differences. Similarly, communities, which appear to be assimilated into American or Western culture, by virtue of observable behavior and language, may retain enormous indigenous cultural knowledge that affects their interaction with the school. They may, for example, retain systems for classifying concepts based on similarity of form or shape rather than function. Thus, when asked which concepts "go together best"—"laundering," "beer," "clothing"—they would see laundering and beer as similar because they both involved sudsiness, rejecting the more functional relationship between clothing and laundering common in the United States.

Culture as knowledge also reinforces the notion, suggested earlier, that cultures can survive and even flourish in the absence of physical proximity and direct social interaction between members, despite tremendous pressures towards assimilation in the immediate environment. Thus, immigrants residing in the United States for over 30 years and their native born children (and their children) may still actively participate in the culture of their native lands, as well as in the American culture.

Finally, we suggest that in multicultural settings the potential cultural gap between teacher and students, between students, between school and community (especially older members), is more akin to a fog-enshrouded chasm, and a carefully constructed bridge is needed. As a result, we must all learn to recognize and articulate quite explicitly these deeply embedded, nontangible, yet profoundly significant elements that constitute culture.

More optimistically, it is suggested that individuals have the capacity to acquire and store multiple and quite diverse cultural knowledge structures and, thus, to become competent in more than a single culture (Goodenough, 1976). In the context of multicultural classrooms, this means, according to Gibson, that all students can develop "competencies in multiple systems of standards for perceiving, evaluation, believing and doing" (Gibson, 1984). Again, using the linguistics analogy, additional cultural competencies, like additional languages, apparently can be learned additively, without requiring replacement or rejection of the mother form. It may be that multiple cultural competency, like second-language-learning, enhances cognitive development. Certainly, it could facilitate critical thinking skills, since both require awareness of and consideration of alternative perspectives and solutions. Most significant for our purposes here, the notion of multiple cultural competencies offers a way for teachers to deal with the diversity of cultures represented within the school's geographic community. Translated into practice this suggests that teachers need not be afraid to teach explicitly the culture of the school; in fact it is a professional obligation that students acquire competency in this additional microculture. Moreover, in a culturally diverse classroom, teachers should facilitate students not only becoming bicultural (i.e., in their own and the school's culture), but also multicultural (i.e., conversant in the cultures of classmates).

Culture as Shared—More or Less

Culture, as noted earlier, is fundamentally a collective or shared phenomenon, and cultural knowledge is common knowledge—what everyone knows and takes for granted. Realistically, however, not even in those small-scale, relatively isolated tribal groups studied by early anthropologists, is culture perfectly shared (i.e., there is always some variability). Within any society, but particularly within large complex societies, there are numerous smaller, sometimes geographically based or situationally specific microcultures (Spradley & McCurdy, 1988). Microcultures can be thought of as the variations on the common macrocultural themes, or as specialized knowledge structures in which only some members of a society participate. Microcultures based on gender and age are nearly universal; those based on religion, language, ethnicity, nationality, geographical region, caste (or other hereditary occupations), or class are common to modern societies. But the microculture concept can also be extended to other entities such as organizations (hospitals, corporations, schools), professions (teachers, doctors, engineers), academic disciplines (physics, anthropology, psychology), and recreational pursuits (folk dancers, skiers, rappers).

From the listing above, it is clear that the geographically bounded school community, even in the most ethnically homogeneous neighborhood, is microculturally, and hence, culturally diverse. Similarly, ethnicity constitutes only one type of microculture in which individuals participate; they are also involved in gender, religious, regional, national, occupational, organizational, and numerous other (including family) microcultures. Thus, no ethnic community is homogeneous. Consequently, approaches to multicultural education that attempt to identify the learning style of Hispanics (or even of Chicanas) or that try to provide student teachers with teaching strategies suitable for Asians, Hispanics, or African Americans, are inadequate.

If even the ethnic community is heterogeneous along many dimensions, the multicultural community is most aptly characterized as a structure of incredibly complicated and cross-cutting microcultures. The neighborhood served by the school, then, is more accurately conceived of as containing multiple, diverse, but partially overlapping microcultures, and degrees of cultural sharing characterize those who reside there.

Clearly, it is impossible to address this degree of cultural complexity through traditional approaches, which rely on teaching education students characteristics of each major ethnic group represented in the modern multicultural classroom. Furthermore, this type of teacher education often leads to stereotyping and over simplification that only contribute to teacher dissatisfaction when confronted with reality. During the 1960s sociologists, other social scientists, and educators formulated comparative lists of values purportedly held by minority groups and in opposition to those of the dominant culture. Such lists appeared in curriculum guides, professional journals, and the general media. One critique of such material provided the following example:

Mexican-American Values	Anglo Values
Orientation toward satisfaction of present needs	Orientation toward satisfaction of future, long-term goals
Acceptance of life as it exists	Emphasis on cause and effect
Emotional/personal relationships valued	Objective, fair relationships valued
Authority valued, unquestioned	Rationality and questioning valued
Immediate and extended family responsibilities valued	Family responsibilities tempered by work, school responsibilities (Litsinger-Escobar, 1973)

Often the differences were used to explain societal status or school achievement attained by members of minority groups. It was logical to attribute the failure of minority group members to achieve or succeed in the dominant culture to the minority culture, itself (Litsinger-Escobar, 1973).

While such over-simplified reasoning is no longer tolerated, it is unrealistic to expect teachers to know intimately each microculture in which students participate. A more efficient and realistic approach is to provide teachers with the concepts and tools to discover and explore relevant diversity as it arises in teaching-related contexts. This may involve, as will be seen in the following section on ethnography, assuming the role of ethnographer vis-a-vis students, parents, and neighborhood residents.

The multiplicity of microcultures that constitute culture, and which are found in the communities surrounding the school, may at first appear a barrier to effective teacher-pupil-parent community communication. However, not only does this approach preclude overstereotyping of ethnic groups, it also recognizes similarities among different ethnic groups, since individuals participate in at least one microculture that transcends ethnic boundaries (e. g., gender or religious culture). American women, for example, whether they are African American, Asian American, or Latina, have been exposed to similar cultural definitions of beauty and body image, and have had to deal with manifestations of American male culture (sexual harassment, job discrimination). Pathways, then, already exist for crossing rather than maintaining cultural boundaries, whether between teachers and students, teachers and communities, or among students of different ethnic groups. Parents and teachers can draw upon their shared membership in generational, parental, and geographical microcultures to lay the foundation for communication and cooperation.

Multiple overlapping microcultures provide further evidence that it is normal for humans to learn and become competent in several cultures, to become cross-culturally literate (Arvizu & Saravia-Shore, 1990), and to culture-switch (akin to code-switching) as guided by situational context and immediate goals. Participating in more than one culture and having more than a single cultural identity should not be problematic nor lead to abandonment of primary cultural group identification, a perceived problem in some minority communities (Ogbu, 1987). Nor will it lead inevitably to the breakdown of one's own cultural value system, as opponents of a misunderstood cultural relativism assert. [For a critique of Bloom (1987) and Hirsch (1987), see Carroll & Schensel, (1990).]

Education, Enculturation and the Microculture of the School

The concept of microcultures has the potential to improve teacher-community relationships in another way. One significant microculture among the many microcultures that constitute the community is the school, itself. The concept of education, to anthropologists, refers to the formal and informal processes through which culture is transmitted to and reproduced in new members of a group or society. Education involves cultural transmission or enculturation, that is, learning to be competent in one's culture.[1] From this perspective, education is part of the basic human experience, the manner in which all cultures and microcultures (and thus all families) teach and learn culture.

Schooling, then, is only one of many types of educational processes and schools constitute a particular cultural vehicle for transmitting knowledge, which themselves can vary significantly from culture to culture. What kind of knowledge is being transmitted in schools? And to what extent are the school-specific cultural processes for transmitting knowledge (the cultural forms of teaching and learning) congruent with those to which children have been exposed prior to coming to school?

Dewey and other educational utopianists, along with cultural conservatives such as Bloom and Hirsch, would like us to believe we are transmitting fundamental truths (or at least objective knowledge) and cultivating universal human thought processes that transcend culture. Anthropologists have never made that assumption. Instead, schools are viewed as cultural, transmission-focused microcultural systems, which are embedded in and thus reflect the larger macroculture. As such, they are devices for transmitting and reproducing the macrocultural system, often the dominant ethnic cultural traditions.

Hence, schools have both a hidden or implicit curriculum as well as a formal curriculum (Hernandez & Mukhopadhyay, 1985).

In addition to its cultural reproduction functions, the school, like any other institution, develops it's own unique microculture with associated material, social-behavioral, and mental products. Thus, schools are physically organized in patterned, culturally specific, and arbitrary ways with playgrounds, classrooms, principal's office, and associated cultural artifacts like blackboards, maps, report cards, and bulletin boards. Furthermore, the school microculture has associated social roles (principals, teachers, counselors, hall monitors), social groups (chorus, sports teams, PTA), and numerous minor and major rituals (greetings, signing yearbooks, graduation). More significant, and more difficult to identify and learn, is the enormous body of cultural knowledge implicit in and guiding what goes on in school-teaching-student-community interactions, much of it embedded in language.

Recent anthropological and sociolinguistic studies of language in classroom settings also reveal the extent to which the organization of communication (i.e., the set of procedures or rules for communicating), is itself integral to the organization of learning and teaching (Pelissier, 1991). For example, Mehan's (1979) studies of interactions between students and teachers in elementary school classrooms showed that students must master both content and the interactional rules for discussing content (i.e., they have to know when to speak and how to formulate their utterances). Thus, communicative competence, the ability to use language in a socially appropriate manner, is a prerequisite for school success and entails much more than language fluency.

Such studies also reveal cultural variability in the organization of communication for teaching and learning and in the different patterns of language use that occur in school as compared to other teaching/learning situations (i.e., at home, in church). Philips' classic study of classroom communication among Warm Springs Indians in Oregon examined what she termed "participant structures," i.e., the organization of talk and interaction. She found striking differences in the Indian forms and those characteristic of the Anglo school system. These differences created classroom communication problems, which interfered with learning (Philips, 1983). Thus, Anglo teachers used verbal and teacher-directed modes of communication rather than the more cooperative and nonverbal interactional forms with which students were comfortable.

These and other studies of classroom communication[3] strikingly reinforce the notion that the school constitutes a microculture in its own right, with it's own modes of teaching and learning, as well as material, social, and mental products. It also reveals just how subtle, implicit, pervasive, and extensive is the teacher's cultural knowledge, which students must acquire if they are to be competent in school culture.

From this perspective, perhaps the most effective way to approach school-community interactions is as a culture contact situation, in which both groups already possess relevant cultures (i.e., ways of learning and teaching). Going to school for a child becomes the process of learning a new culture—the school culture. Therefore, the role of the teacher is first to articulate that culture clearly, and then to facilitate students becoming competent in that culture. This is not to say that the teacher is excused from understanding the student's culture, nor from examining the school's microculture in order to adjust or modify it. The more aware that teachers are of the culture of the school itself, and the more able they are to articulate to students and parents the cultural knowledge they possess, the more effective teachers will be as transmitters of this knowledge to others, even if they are themselves relatively ignorant of the other cultural forms with which students are familiar. As such, the teacher assumes the role of translator of school culture to students, parents, and communities, where such translation is needed. And, as will be seen shortly, combining this awareness with basic ethnographic approaches, the teacher can discover points of incongruity and congruity between the school microculture and other microcultures represented in its student body. The end result may well be a rational change in the school microculture itself, so as to facilitate teaching and student learning of attitudes, skills, and concepts needed to operate successfully in the macroculture.

Because the school experience for students and community members can be conceptualized as one of contact with a new culture, combined with evidence that competencies in multiple cultures is a normal part of the human experience, the school culture need not replace other cultural forms. This reduces the dilemma of teachers facing classrooms and communities with whose culture they have little or no familiarity or of ethnic groups fearing loss of identity. Once one realizes that one is in a different or new culture (which one can also leave, periodically), the process of learning that culture can begin, and may even prove exciting. This process is facilitated by an attitude of cultural relativism, which properly conceived, involves the suspension of one's own cultural modes of interpretation in order to understand or make sense of other cultural systems.

Ethnography: A Tool for Tapping and Translating Cultural Knowledge Between School and Commities

We believe the basic conceptual framework of culture and schooling presented thus far offers a fruitful way for teachers and teacher-educators to approach and think about the multicultural school and community setting. Application of this conceptual framework is enhanced when supplemented with the tools of ethnography—the anthropological methodology for discovering culture. Using ethnography in the school setting offers an additional vehicle for tapping into and communicating about diverse systems of cultural knowledge.

What Is Ethnography?

Ethnography is fundamentally a descriptive and a discovery process. Its central goal is to tap the cultural knowledge that members of a culture use to interpret and act upon the world in which they live. In the school context, ethnography "refers to the study of educational and enculturative processes related to schools and intentional schooling" (Spindler, 1982, p. 2). In the words of George Spindler, one of the earliest proponents of the use of ethnography in educational research, ethnography is "first and foremost a descriptive endeavor in which the researcher attempts accurately to describe and interpret the nature of social discourse among a group of people" (Wilcox, 1982, p. 458). While discourse infers verbal interaction, thereby making the ethnographic record largely dependent on language, ethnography does not ignore nonverbal behavior nor divorce the study of classroom interaction from the larger social context.[3]

Ethnography differs from most social science research in its emphasis on the insider or emic perspective. The goal is to see the world through native eyes, to understand and describe the native perspective, categories, rationale, beliefs, and guides to action. The successful ethnographer develops the ability to anticipate (not be surprised by) native behavior and the fundamental beliefs and conceptual categories embedded in normal discourse.

One basic procedure, participation-observation, emphasizes immersing one's self in native culture as much as possible so as to experience culture from the insider's perspective and to discover the culturally relevant information that is necessary to interpret appropriately what one observes. Thus, observation plays a somewhat different role than it does in other disciplines; it is a tool of discovery for identifying questions that need to be asked and meanings that need to be investigated. It is also a vehicle for testing descriptive or interpretive hypotheses, or preliminary conclusions, about the native cultural meanings of particular behaviors, events, or artifacts. Thus, ethnographers initially formulate interpretative hypotheses rather than the kind of hypothesis-testing characteristic of other disciplines, though ethnographic data may be used subsequently to test theoretically derived hypotheses.

Because of the emphasis on culture as knowledge rather than as observable behavior and the many different interpretations or meanings that can plausibly be given to that which is observed, language and ethnolinguistic methods play an exceedingly important role in the ethnographic process. First, language, through informal or more structured interviewing, is essential for eliciting native interpretations and meanings for observable culture and for avoiding ethnocentric (outsider) interpretations. Second, because so much of cultural knowledge is embedded in language, attention to language and natural discourse becomes an important avenue to discover cultural knowledge. Thus ethnographers learn to listen for, elicit, and carry out detailed investigations of key words, premises, suppositions, metaphors, categories, and rationale for action.

While recording classroom observations or keeping a journal are familiar processes to most teachers, the use of ethnography in the school setting may be foreign; certainly the technique as described above is distinct from conventional educational research methodologies (Fetterman, 1989). George Spindler describes the distinctive features of ethnography in the school setting as follows:

- Hypotheses and questions for study emerge as the study proceeds. Judgment on what is significant to study is deferred until the orienting phase of the field study has been completed.
- Inquiry and observation must disturb as little as possible the process of interaction and communication in the setting being studied.
- Observation is prolonged and repetitive. Chains of events are observed more than once.
- A major part of the ethnographic task is to understand what sociocultural knowledge participants bring to and generate in the social setting being studied.
- Sociocultural knowledge affecting behavior and communication is implicit or tacit, not known to some participants and known only ambiguously to others. A significant task of ethnography is to make explicit what is implicit and tacit to informants and participants.
- The ethnographic interviewer must not predetermine responses by the kinds of questions asked. . . . Eliciting interaction must . . . promote the unfolding of emic cultural knowledge in its most heuristic, "natural" form.
- The native view of reality is brought out by inferences from observation and by various forms of ethnographic inquiry.
- Any form of technical device that will enable the ethnographer to collect more live data—immediate, natural, detailed behavior—will be used, such as cameras, audiotapes, and videotapes.
- Instruments, codes, schedules, questionnaires . . . are generated in the field as a result of observation and ethnographic inquiry.
- Cultural variation over time and space is considered as a natural human condition. All cultures are adaptations to the exigencies of life and exhibit common as well as distinguishing features. (Spindler, 1982, p. 6,7)

Role of Ethnography for Teachers and Teacher Educators

It is clear from Spindler's criteria that teachers cannot become full-fledged ethnographers nor do systematic ethnography daily in the classroom. However, they can be exposed to basic principles prior to going into the classroom, and understand ways of using it as one of many teaching tools

Teacher education programs most often help students become critical thinkers or reflective practitioners about instructional effectiveness; however, they do not often ask students to be reflective about their effectiveness in intercultural situations. Yet, this part of the professional knowledge base is becoming most important as our students are confronted by multiple languages, ethnic, and racial diversity in today's classrooms.

One of Spindler's criteria for doing the ethnography of schooling emphasizes hypotheses building and identification of questions for study. Ethnography as a process is inherently inductive. While working in a laboratory situation (student teaching or observing and participating in a classroom) students doing ethnography can become "participants (who) observe, formulate inquiries, apply them, and then go back to observing, only to return to inquiry once again" (Spindler, 1982, p. 494).

Ideally, the student preparing to teach would have many opportunities to learn the techniques of ethnography. At the undergraduate level, particularly in social science or cultural foundations of education courses, students could acquire fundamental ethnographic skills and concepts, even carry out a miniethnography of the microculture of a school or an ethnic group. Subsequently, professional education programs could incorporate ethnography as a part of methods courses, in student teaching seminars, and especially in multicultural education courses.[4]

As part of the professional course sequence, instruction in ethnographic techniques and research becomes even more critical. An ethnographic record can be the vehicle for integrating knowledge gained in social or psychological foundations courses, multicultural education courses, methods courses, as well as general education courses. Kutz found in her research that ethnographic training provides students "a methodology that would allow them to examine the whole classroom environment and to make sense out of what they were seeing and hearing" (Kutz, 1990, p. 350). In other words, the technique provides a methodological framework with which to integrate knowledge and extend an experience beyond a specific event. This is the essence of a reflective practitioner.

The ability to apply previous learning to a specific situation through a rational method, such as ethnography, can increase the student's confidence in the classroom as well as when confronting new and different community cultures. Once again, quoting Kutz, "The ethnographer's perspective gave our students a way of working within this setting, and the task of understanding the working of this small culture focused their attention beyond their own uncertainties and inadequacies" (p. 350) .

Ethnography As Self-study

As important as it is to be able to analyze objectively social interaction, it is even more important to be able to view one's own role objectively in that situation. Certainly an important part of inquiry is coming to know oneself. Ethnography is a process for discovery about ourselves as well as others. "For the classroom teacher . . . it can be a sensitization experience. The experience teaches that the native view of reality is important and that each child has cultural knowledge that is significant and that influences education outcomes. Ethnography leads one to an essentially clinical and objective rather than personalized view of the educational process" (Spindler, 1982, p. 496).

The ability to recognize and be tolerant of diverse perspectives and ways of seeing the world is a quality all teachers must have, but especially those entering multicultural settings. The point of view of the teacher is an essential element, particularly in facilitating mutually beneficial communication between cultures. Ethnographic techniques can help teachers expand their point of view beyond their own culture so that all cultures, including the teachers, are seen as variations on the same basic human themes. The ethnographic perspective makes observers see their own culture as strange or exotic, even though it is known. The familiar becomes strange and in this way observers realize insights about themselves, their own culture, their own values and ways of behaving.

Conclusion

We have tried to present a view of community that recognizes the complexities of the multiple microcultures in which the school operates. We have used an anthropological framework that stresses culture as subtle, implicit, intangible, and shared knowledge. Within this framework, education is presented as a universal human activity that occurs in contexts beyond the school. We have defined the school as constituting a microculture and delineated the role of the teacher as enabling the learner to become competent in that microculture. We view the teacher not so much as a transmitter or reinforcer of the dominant culture, but as a facilitator for individuals acquiring multiple cultural competencies, without losing their identity in the other microcultures of which they are a part.

Finally we have suggested that ethnography be included in teacher preparation programs because it offers a valuable tool to learn about cultures, including the teacher's own cultural perspective. The reflective nature of the process fits well with current thinking about reflective practice. Furthermore, the technique holds promise for the continued development of a knowledge base about multicultural communities and the changes needed in school culture if it is to facilitate the learning of all its students.

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Endnotes

1. Use of the term enculturation rather than socialization reflects our emphasis on culture as knowledge rather than simply behavior or social action.

2. Other useful collections of anthropological studies of classroom communication include: Cazden (1986), Heath (1983, 1984), Ochs & Schiefflin (1983).

3. Some additional useful introductions to ethnography and ethnographic methods include: Agar (1980), Bernard (1988), Fetterman (1989), Spradley (1979, 1980).

4. See Hernandez and Mukhopadhyay (1985) for structured activities designed to aid student teachers in understanding the concept of culture and the microculture of the school. Also Moses and Higgins (1982) and Selig and Higgins (1986).

II

Family and School Coalitions: Surmounting Obstacles

Earline D. Kendall

Schools and families are forming partnerships. They are surmounting obstacles. They are realizing their need for each other and are beginning to agree on the importance of overcoming barriers that have traditionally separated them. Families need schools to assist them in the education of their children; schools need family support in order to educate students. It is possible after decades of distance that schools are ready for more than token parent participation and parents are eager to commit support to schools beyond raising money and attending class performances.

While real partnerships between families and schools are beneficial for both, myths about what today's parents are like prevent both parents and teachers from optimizing the potential for coalition building. This essay explores why it is important for families and schools to work together, why families and schools have difficulty connecting, why the barriers or myths interfere with commitment between schools and families, what teachers and teacher educators can do to overcome these barriers, and what the double tasks of teacher education and policymakers are in encouraging parents and teachers to work together. It is through this effort that the tenants of Goals 2000: Educating Americans Act can be reached and policies that will shape education in the 21st century can be influenced.

What Parents Need from Schools

At the risk of being overly simplistic, this essay makes certain assumptions about parents that do not apply to all parents in equal measure; however, most parents want the "best" for their children. They may differ about what constitutes the best, but when it comes to education parents tend to agree that schools should provide optimal learning opportunities for their children, whatever their children's needs. They want safe places for their children to learn academics, to learn how to get along with all segments of the community, how to make it in society, how to be a winner, how to live in a democratic system, and how to have a better life than their parents experienced. Parents want competent teachers; compassionate administrators; environments that are safe, clean, and supportive.

Families need schools to supplement what they can provide. Working together not only helps families, but helps schools perform their tasks better. When families and schools work together toward their similar goals, students learn more. Schools can reach out to form partnerships with families and the community to ensure student success.

What Schools Need from Parents

Schools can do some of the job of educating youth but they cannot do the whole job unless families are active partners (Parents, 1991). Home is the first classroom. Parents are the first and most essential teachers (Boyer, 1991, p. 33).

Parent involvement contributes to teacher efficacy and to enhancing school socioeconomic status (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Brissie, 1987). Families, schools, and wider cultural beliefs all play a part in children's academic successes and failures (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992, p. 52). As waves of immigrants entered the United States, their beliefs about the importance of education set a high standard for their children's education. Both at the turn of the 20th and again as we near the 21st century, the high priority some cultures place on education influences children from these cultures to excel in school, even in schools where other children are indifferent and fail to achieve. The National Education Goals are already met by the students of certain cultural groups in the United States who value education and make learning a priority. These children do come to school ready to learn; they do complete high school; they do score high on achievement tests; they do set the standards in math and science; they do become lifelong learners. Other children, both recent arrivals and long-time residents, are not ready to learn, drop out before completing high school, and have low achievement scores and few job skills. While there are many reasons why some children succeed while others enter school at-risk, educators increasingly view parents as the key to making the difference for their children (Bacon, 1990).

In determining the lasting effects of preschool education for low-income children, Lazar (1983) reports that one of the primary reasons children at risk for school failure did better in school than children not in Head Start-type experimental programs was the high rate of parent participation in the experimental programs. Follow-up studies when these children reached high school compellingly support the long-terms benefits for working with at-risk children and their families, instead of with students alone. Benefits of the experimental programs include: fewer school drop outs, fewer students assigned to special education classes, higher achievement scores, and higher parental aspirations related to academic goals. Programs targeted services to poor, minority children, their mothers, and siblings. The results lasted long after preschool and had an impact on the status of subjects after they entered adulthood.

Geiger (1991) refers to parents as educational superpowers. Even excellent schools cannot teach children in isolation: Families are important to children, and parents are necessary participants in schools. However, during the past 40 or 50 years, myths about parents and schools have interfered with true partnerships between families and schools and served as deterrents to building constructive partnerships.

Ten Barriers to Parent Involvement in Schools

Barriers, which may be myths about parents' attitudes toward schools, interfere with getting parents involved in schools and sustaining their commitment. This section identifies 10 characteristics of parents related to their willingness to be involved in schools. These myths have served as barriers to schools working with parents and parents working with schools. Here are 10 selected, current parent-school barriers:

Today's Parents Are Not Available

It's true that many parents are not readily available because of poverty, single-parent status, illness, work, or other professional commitments. However, a veteran principal of 34 years stated recently that his school has more parent involvement than at any time previously, and he is a principal who has had extensive participation by parents in every school where he has served. Teachers often state that parents are unavailable to their children and to the schools; yet, some teachers have numerous parents participating weekly in their classrooms. These teachers accept parents in the classroom as instructors; they provide space, resources, and direction for parents to contribute. These teachers share the joys of teaching and they organize activities and make sure parents are successful in their classroom roles.

Some school systems and state educational systems as well as social welfare agencies are mandating parent participation on hiring committees, and on textbook and curriculum decision-making teams. Chicago is attempting one of the most radical experiments with parent-led councils at each school empowered to hire and fire principals, develop school improvement plans, and ultimately to be in control of much of the budget (Parents as Partners, 1990). Kentucky is a prime example of a state drastically changing the roles of teachers, parents, and administrators as it restructures schools. While many parents and teachers will not want to participate in such decisions, others will not only participate in new ways but will represent other parents and teachers as the restructuring takes place. Parent choice about which schools children attend is gaining favor. Vastly different schools could emerge. Even parents with multiple commitments can be involved.

Today's Parents Are Not Interested

Not all parents express their interest in a school-approved manner. The stress of trying to acquire essential goods and services may set up priority conflicts between acquring basic necessities and participating in longer-term efforts like education. Not all parents hurry to the school for conferences, field trips, or the PTA, but parents care. What schools must do is find a way to tap parents' caring in ways that are productive for both families and schools. Teacher educators must prepare teachers who do not blame the victims of poverty, drugs, or abuse. We must prepare teachers who are able to function in low-income area schools, who can see themselves as efficacious with whatever students are assigned to them, who are not afraid to take assignments with children who come from cultures or families with values vastly different from their own. Parents' interests can be nurtured.

Today's Parents Are Too Old

This myth stems from the belief that during the 1980s era of acquisition, well-educated parents tended to delay parenthood because of professional or personal goals that were not compatible with having children. The modern women's movement allowed women to aspire to management positions, which had not been attainable in earlier eras. Birth control improvements enabled women to choose parenthood or not, and to determine when a child could best fit professional or life-style plans. Parents may wait so long to have children that they will not parent in the same way younger parents can.

However, older parents often have financial resources allowing them choices about how they spend their time. They may be able to look beyond their own desires to share time and attention with children and their schools in ways not possible for parents just starting their careers. Older parents may be settled emotionally as well as financially. They may have experienced divorce, death, and separations that enable them to put children's needs ahead of their own. Older parents may have resources, experiences, and connections that can benefit schools.

The definition of who is a parent changes as society changes. Some children find themselves with older parent figures, particularly grandparents, who stepped in to raise children abandoned by their too young parents. These grandparent surrogate-parents may be reluctant to engage in PTA and school-related activities again. The schools can support them and make them welcome on their terms while they come to grips with parental responsibilities thrust upon them at an age when they anticipated fewer responsibilities, more leisure, travel, or retirement.

Americans are living longer and are healthier. Schools are finding that retirees may have much to offer as volunteers, whether they are in the parent or the grandparent role or just supporters of the young. Senior citizens on fixed incomes who have no children in schools may resist tax increases, but they may look for ways to contribute during their later years. The schools can find much needed support from people with valuable skills and experience. Older parents can find appropriate mechanisms for involvement.

Today's Parents Are Too Young

In the United States, far too many parents are children themselves. While policymakers debated the merits of sex education and support for unwed mothers and their children, a teenage pregnancy crisis developed in the United States. The U.S. out-of-wedlock birthrate has tripled since 1970 and is among the highest in the developed world (Klein, 1992, p. 19). Teenagers are more apt to have babies with small birth weights and who develop learning problems. UNICEF, in 1985, ranked selected countries on the percentage of babies born at low birth weight. The U.S. White population ranked in 10th place while the U.S. Black rate ranked 25th (Children's Defense Fund, 1988, p. 27). Too often the teenage mothers drop out of school, perpetuating the cycle of poverty. The new poor in the United States are single mothers with young children (Edelman, 1992).

Canada, France, West Germany, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Italy, Spain, Japan, Australia, Ireland, Finland, Norway, Netherlands, Denmark, and New Zealand support families with basic income supplements and health care (Children's Defense Fund, 1988, p. 26). The United States has chosen, during the last couple of decades, to curb much of the support that previously existed. This country ranks extremely high in infant mortality as compared to other developed nations. The 1985 UNICEF report indicated that the U.S. White infant mortality rate was 10 per 1,000 live births (ranking in 14th place) and the U.S. Black infant mortality rate was 28 per 1,000 live births (ranking in 28th place) (Children's Defense Fund, 1988, p. 27). Teenage parents are particularly likely to receive little or late prenatal care, contributing to high U.S. mortality and morbidity rankings.

For complex reasons, young mothers are keeping their babies to raise. Often they have few financial resources, and are themselves children in need of supervision and support. Urban school systems are increasingly providing on-site child care at high schools where centers provide care for students' babies and child development training for parents and other students. Parents are never too young to be involved with their own and their children's education.

Today's Parents Are Too Poor

The myth that poor parents do not care about education and will not support schools is pervasive. Davies (1991) found that poor people care deeply about education and realize that it is the ticket to a better life; however, most poor parents in his study of 350 parents and teachers had no positive contact with the school. Too many parents of young children today are poor and are unable to provide their children the bare essentials (Edelman, 1992). One in four children is poor; a disproportionate number of children of color are poor; too many poor children fail in school; a disproportionate number of poor children are placed in special education; a disproportionate number of poor children drop out of school (Children's Defense Fund, 1988). Teachers may face students from other cultures, many other cultures, and from various classes of society. In our democracy we have avoided acknowledging class differences, but they exist and teachers face these differences daily with both students and their families.

Teachers must have preparation for working with students from economic circumstances vastly different from their own. The schools serve all segments of our society; indeed, the schools have been the vehicle for merging all levels of society. Teachers cannot take a throw-away attitude toward poor children. School may be the only hope these children have to throw off poverty. Parents in low-income situations still have much to contribute.

Today's Parents Are Miseducating Their Children

David Elkind (1987) pointed out that parents too often miseducate their children while trying to hurry them toward the best opportunities. Financially secure parents, as well as parents who must sacrifice considerably, may urge their children into activities beyond their developmental capability or schedule so many activities their children race from one lesson to another with too little time to reflect, to play, and to pursue their own interests. Ballet, Little League, swimming lessons, or other leisure pursuits take the place of child-initiated activities that children pursue on their own, because of their interests. Too often a weekly round of lessons and stimulating opportunities are choices by adults that have more to do with parents' interest in impressing other adults than in a child's real needs. While some parents miseducated their children with ski trips before children could walk, or offered computers before providing blocks, some children have gained from broad experiences of travel, lessons, or experiences well beyond what their schools may offer. Parental energy and resources can be channeled in more appropriate directions.

Today's Parents Want Instant Results

Americans are particularly prone to quick fixes and attempts at instant gratification. We want our children to do what we tell them to, right now. We want to be well educated and prepared academically without arduous study or tedious homework; however, Epstein (1987) found that parents of all socioeconomic status and backgrounds can support appropriate homework practices. We ask schools to respond to our children's immediate needs, sometimes at the expense of recognizing and meeting their long-term education needs. One of the characteristics of those who succeed in school is the ability to delay gratification, to see the use of learning something for later. We live in a society that is based on satisfying the urge of the moment. Schools play into that mentality, poorly serving students and their future needs.

Educators can learn techniques to increase their students' ability to delay gratification in order to pursue a greater goal. Few lessons will pay off better for our youth than this one. Psychologists built such expectations into Head Start's formula for working with children at risk for school failure. Similar techniques can be successful with students of all ages. Probably the higher a student goes academically, the more this approach will benefit. Parents can balance both short- and long-term results.

Today's Parents Reflect the Norms of Families of a Generation Ago

Many teachers today grew up in the 1950s when white, middle-class television families were considered the norm (i.e., "Father Knows Best," "Leave It To Beaver," "Ozzie and Harriet"). Unconsciously, teachers may expect real families to include a mother at home, dad at work, two kids, and a dog. Only a fourth of American children grow up in a home with both biological parents. Schools and teachers must serve the population that exists; too often the focus is on deploring the change in family life rather than finding ways to serve the children and youth who come to school.

Amitai Etzioni, the George Washington University sociologist, believes the excesses of the '80s are being replaced with accountability, commitment, and family values (Klein, 1992, p. 20). A broad-based new political alliance is possible. Recognizing the realities of today's families changes the books assigned and the projects requiring parental help. The times of parent-teacher conferences and association meetings will reflect a new order. The hours and months schools are open will surely change when we accept the demise of the out-dated family model. For too long, schools and teachers expected families to adjust to their schedule, their expectations, their view of what should be. Different family configurations can provide new perspectives.

Today's Parents Want To Do It Alone

Independence is a highly held value by our society. We train our children early to stand on their own two feet. We expect beginning teachers to succeed independently. The message our government sends parents is these children are yours—you decide what to do and do what you can manage on your own. As new political alliances press government officials to act, new support for families will result.

Other nations see the next generation as valuable to the whole of society and that the whole of society is responsible for its children. In earlier eras, we held such a view. Oliver Wendell Holmes said, "A child's education should begin at least a 100 years before he is born." We are short-changing the next several generations unless we take responsibility for not only our own but our neighbors' children as well. As head of the Children's Defense Fund, Marian Wright Edelman knows well that "the measure of our success" is more than what we do with our own children. In *The Measure of Our Success: A Letter to My Children and Yours* (1992) she urges her own sons, other parents, and the nation to realize we cannot go it alone, or allow those with fewer options and resources to cope as best they can.

School has long been the leveling experience, the opportunity to have it better than those who went before. Parents know they cannot provide their children with all they will need to succeed in a complex world. Schools are not offering equal opportunity. As the disparity between the haves and have nots grows in this country, the possibility of violence and eruptions, such as the one in Los Angeles, increases. The public schools have been our best source of feeding the democratic way of life. Parents and schools together have a better chance of success than either do alone.

Today's Parents Can Do It Alone

The last of the 10 myths or barriers about parents and schools discussed here is that parents can do it alone. Public policy assumes they can and will. In a mobile society parents often cannot count on family members to support their parenting efforts. Many grandparents are also in the work force; many live across the country; others are alienated from their children and grandchildren because of divorce, drugs, or other factors. Schools may need to parent the parents, especially very young parents who are not being parented themselves, or who were inadequately parented at crucial times during their development. Zigler and Lang (1991) suggest the answers lie in balancing the needs of children, families, and society. James Comer (Comer & Haynes, 1991) proposes an ecological approach for parent involvement in schools. Alvy (1987) also suggests particular attention be paid to strategies for training and involving Black parents who may have experienced alienation in the schools more than most parents. "Success for all" approaches in urban schools can find a way for every child to learn (Slavin, Dolan, Karweit, Livermon, & Madden, 1989). We consider ourselves a child-oriented society but we rarely make policy based on the best for children. Not until their needs have an impact on business or adult needs do we attend and support children's needs. Parents are an important part of a comprehensive approach.

Can schools form genuine partnerships with families that will benefit all concerned? We must. Parents cannot easily initiate such a relationship, so the schools must reach out, but reach out in new and more useful ways to improve services for pupils and their families. When this happens, the barriers that separate schools and families will disappear.

Getting Parents Involved

In response to changing home and cultural conditions, new programs emerge as family support programs. These are preventive programs whose primary clients are adults—the parents of young children (Stevens, 1991, p. 152). Too often schools have not linked parent and community interests to improve academic support. What is needed are strategies for better communication with families around their children's academic progress. The TransParent School (Bauch, 1990) provides today's parents with ready access to the school. Linkages between parents and teachers by phone and recorded messages are proving useful and popular with parents and teachers alike.

Jennings (1990) and Henderson (1988) found 35 studies linking parent involvement and student achievement. Epstein (1987) indicates that researchers, practitioners, and policymakers consistently rank parent involvement high among the components of effective schools. Two decades of research on family environments show that children have an advantage in school when their parents continuously support and encourage their school activities (p. 6). In spite of such findings, reform movement reports have tended to avoid the topic of parents altogether.

Most educators are better at acknowledging parents' importance in theory than in practice. Parent involvement isn't easy, but better for children. Epstein (1987) found in a survey of 600 Maryland parents that a third of the parents had no conference with teachers during the year and 60% had not talked by phone with a teacher. Schools will have to work hard to overcome such practices. After schools get good parent participation, they learn they cannot operate successfully without it.

The Council of Chief State School Officers recently suggested that if we are to meet the goal of a 100% graduation rate by the year 2000, family resources must be strengthened and families must be connected to the schools. Connecticut and New York are attempting to place comprehensive services for families within school buildings. Wisconsin, Florida, Illinois, Maine, Minnesota, and North Carolina have linked public assistance to school attendance (Parents As Partners, 1990).

The Task for Teacher Education

Teacher education programs offering P-12 endorsements generally focus little on family issues and how teachers can improve relationships with their students' families. Graduates of P-12 programs rarely feel completely prepared to work equally well with both students and their parents.

Programs in special education and early childhood do a better job of alerting education students to the role parents play in children's lives and the necessary role parents play at school. Even so, Lilian Katz (1992) points out the difficulties of teaching parent involvement techniques to undergraduates who were "unable to identify adequately with either the parents' perspectives or the teachers' predicaments" (p. 14). Preservice teachers' orientation to both parents and teachers is usually unformed at this stage of their professional development. Students asked Katz for recipes and complained about the lack of relevance in class activities. She found the undergraduate course content "thin" for a semester-length course and the relevant knowledge base small. Graduate students, on the other hand, grasp the nuances of both parent and teacher dilemmas and enjoy wrestling with the issues. This may be an area where the Holmes Group idea of delaying professional courses until the fifth year makes sense. Both undergraduate and graduate teacher preparation programs cannot ignore training for dealing with parents, no matter how difficult it may prove.

One of the knottiest issues for teacher educators continues to be diversity. Teacher education, under pressure from the National Council on Accreditation in Teacher Education and policymakers, has scrambled to address the diversity issue within our own ranks and to maximize the diversity of settings in which preservice teachers learn. The public schools are increasingly populated with minority students but too many teacher education students have too little experience with this fast-growing group. Teacher educators are remiss unless we send teachers out who are prepared to teach these students and relate positively with their families. In many minority cultures, family participation and relationships are even more evident than in White families. Only sustained, knowledgeable efforts to overcome the lack of contact normally experienced with those of other races and cultures will prepare teachers who can comfortably seek the teaching assignments most likely to be available—in urban schools with high percentages of students from minority groups.

As school populations change, school policies change the way teachers and parents relate. If a change is occurring in the way states and systems expect parents and teachers to function, teacher education will be remiss unless we prepare our students for a new day. New teachers in the field are often open to implementing reforms if they have been prepared to accept a different role from the traditional. Unless new teachers have preservice contact and direct work with parents, they will continue to shy away from working with parents until asked. Usually too little too late happens when change is mandated. Teacher education can make a major difference in helping teachers and schools reach out to parents and families to improve the educational experience of P-12 students.

Boyer (1991), Comer (1991), Epstein (1987), and Geiger (1991) provide strong support for family involvement and for positive outcomes for students, schools, and society when families and schools work together. Teacher education can take lessons from special education and child development in courses and practicum experiences offered. Teacher education reforms have focused little on the relationship between teachers and parents. During the decade of reform just behind us we have added significantly to the academic requirements and nothing related to family involvement. The next wave of reform must look at the restructuring of schools not only from the perspective of what happens to students, what is the work place like for teachers, but the added responsibilities parents will carry.

The Task for Policy

Policies are changing the way schools and families relate. Boyer (1991), Kagan, Powell, Weissbourd, and Zigler (1987), Edelman (1992), Lindner (1986), and others are calling for additional changes in national policy. States are restructuring education and in many cases are recognizing that parents have to not only be involved but lead the way. NCATE requirements impact what and when teacher education changes. NCATE has now acknowledged teacher preparation necessary for working with families.

As Americans increasingly recognize that neglecting our children carries a high cost (Hewlett, 1992) and that schools are not the only responsible party in educating children (Hodgkinson, 1991a), those developing policies and procedures for schools will take a new look at what we expect from both parents and teachers (Klein, 1992). The schools have long carried the weight of public expectation to fix America's social dilemmas. Immigration brought millions from diverse cultures to our shores; education was the means we used to assimilate the new citizens. As race became an increasingly ugly issue, and other attempts to solve the problem failed, the courts placed the issue squarely on schools. When rights for handicapped persons were violated, again the schools were the mechanism for righting wrong.

When we have been successful addressing social issues through the schools, we have involved parents heavily in the tasks. Head Start owes whatever success it has to integrating parents totally in the process. Special education laws could not have occurred without parents who battled legislatures and Congress.

Conclusion

Schools cannot educate our children and youth alone; parents are essential to the process. In order for parents to function in schools, the relationship between schools and families will have to change. A coalition can occur between educators and parents, but schools will have to change—and convince parents of the change. Parents send the best they have to the schools. Sometimes their children are not what the schools want or who the schools are prepared to handle. Whatever their children are like, parents want safe, disciplined, drug-free schools conducive to learning. By participating, they can influence such an environment for their children's schools. Schools need parents to participate in the schools in significant ways. Schools with strong family support and involvement get enhanced, long-lasting results.

The 10 myths examined about today's parents reflect traditional barriers to school-family collaboration. Although each of the myths reflects sufficient truth to remain troublesome, each can be overcome by open acceptance of parents whether they seem: unavailable and uninterested, older or younger than the norm, poor or affluent, or looking for quick fixes—parents do not want do it alone, and they cannot. In spite of the persistence of such myths, barriers to parent involvement are eroding. Schools with innovative solutions are getting parents involved and sustaining the parent-school relationship.

As school populations reflect changing demographics with more students of color (Hodgkinson, 1991b), the need to involve families increases. Many non-White cultures have strong family traditions. As the school population changes, how the schools relate to families will be particularly important.

Parents will change the climate of schools. Teachers often speak and act differently when a parent is in the room. Parents can be powerful allies for teachers. Parents who spend time in schools know teaching isn't easy and that most teachers work very hard at their craft. Parents with hiring and firing power over administrators will exercise that power to impact positively what happens to their children. Excellent schools have principals who are educational leaders. Parents will intuitively sense that they want a principal who attends to the learning process rather than administrivia. Schools and teachers and students will benefit when this happens.

Teacher education cannot continue to operate as usual regarding families and family issues. If we don't change what we do and have education students change what they can do, we will be "left out of the loop." It is up to us. We can direct our attention to what states, local schools, individual teachers, and supporting communities are doing and be part of a new movement, or we will be left behind.

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III

Collaborating to Improve Teacher Education: A Dean of Education's Perspective

Iris M. Tiedt

In 1991, more than 41 million young people attended the nation's schools, an increase of more than 400,000 students compared to the preceding year. Although high school enrollments dropped slightly, both elementary and middle school enrollments increased (Market Data Retrieval, 1991). These students represent the future of the United States. The government, the economy—the very existence of our country—depends on the learners who are now in our schools.

Whether these students succeed, whether they graduate from high school with distinction, whether they will be capable of assuming the roles on which we all rely, depends to a large extent on the schools they attend. The kind of schooling we provide is the responsibility of local school districts, statewide systems, and the federal Department of Education. Complex issues are involved: funding for schools, management at all levels, and the social realities that we recognize today. The success of these students also depends on the teachers who work in America's schools. Never has the role of the teacher been considered more important, and never has the preparation of teachers been under such close scrutiny. Across the country, there is a call to restructure teacher education, to upgrade the preparation of teachers so that student learning will be improved.

Creating new structures, however, must be built on first reconceptualizing what we are trying to achieve in a teacher education program. Effective change depends on clear vision of the current situation. Furthermore, teacher education cannot be reformed in isolation, for it is linked irrevocably to the P-12 schools. Clearly, there is a need for concerted collaborative effort to review, to reconceptualize, and to effect massive changes in all of education from preschool through postsecondary levels. Although reform in education reflects diverse theories and involves complex issues, yet certain directions and changes appear to show special promise and are worth summarizing here.

This essay is written from the perspective of a dean of education in a regional Minnesota state university, which is necessarily different from that of a 3rd-grade teacher, a high school principal, or even a faculty member in a teacher education program. Understandably, this view is also colored by what has been happening in education in a state that has been known for progressive, liberal thinking. Promising practices, from one dean's perspective, are discussed under the following topics:

Collaborative Planning for Community Schools,
Collaborative Planning for Teacher Education, and
Collaborative Planning to Support Teachers in the Schools.

As a point of clarification, the author operates under the assumption that collaborators in any endeavor vary in their commitment, in their background knowledge, and in their contribution to the effort. This does not, however, diminish the value and the overall effectiveness of collaborative planning (Wisniewski & Lasley, 1992). In the following pages we will explore how we can collaborate to improve education at all levels. However, the emphasis in this chapter is on improving the preparation of teachers for the 21st century, thus improving teaching and learning in P-12 classrooms.

Collaborative Planning for Community Schools

Teacher education is inextricably tied into what is happening in the P-12 schools. Problems faced by teachers and administrators in these schools have an impact directly on teacher education. Efforts to improve instruction at this level must be shared by postsecondary institutions, particularly the faculty in teacher education programs. Such sharing might take the form of interactive dialogue, decisions related directly to achievement of the National Education Goals, or cooperative research and development plans. Notice that we recognize the importance of the preschool years and preschool education by referring to P-12 schools rather than K-12 throughout the discussion.

Interactive Dialogue

Leaders in teacher education need to reach out to teachers and administrators in P-12 schools to invite dialogue focusing on collaborative problem solving. Since teacher education is to a large extent dependent on the P-12 schools in carrying out its programs, it is essential that rapport between local school personnel and the university faculty be maintained. If communication takes the form only of top/down edicts from the university, the relationship will never be truly equitable with a feeling of trust and mutual respect. University faculty and administrators must consciously aim at developing this cooperative relationship if collaborative planning is to occur. The following scenarios illustrate the kind of interactive dialogue that is an integral component of collaborative planning with the local schools:

- Teacher education faculty invite local principals to meet at the university over dessert and coffee to discuss the establishment of multiple criteria for admissions into teacher education. Together, the faculty and administrators talk about and compile a list of possible criteria and assessment measures, for example: oral speaking competency, literacy competencies, experience working with children, a portfolio begun during the first introductory education course, specified coursework completed, and achievement of a 2.75 grade point average in all coursework completed. Through such inclusive activities, the principals have an opportunity to provide suggestions about educating the teachers who will work in their schools. Furthermore, they feel that the teacher education faculty respects their insight and values their special expertise.
- To promote collaboration as a two-way exchange, university faculty and administrators visit the schools. For example, several university faculty might visit one of the local schools to talk with teachers after school about the possibilities of carrying out outcome-based education with special emphasis on alternative methods of assessment. As teachers and faculty brainstorm ideas and consider problems that might arise, they get acquainted and find that they all have knowledge to share.
- Since teachers in the local schools often look to the university for ideas about current research and the newest instructional strategies, faculty members offer to present an inservice workshop for local teachers. Teachers choose to focus on whole language methods in elementary and secondary classrooms, including how to get started with whole language and how knowledge about the phoneme/grapheme relationship fits into this approach to literacy instruction. Teachers are involved in planning the workshop, and those with ideas to share are included as presenters.
- The university establishes a task force to address the preparation of teachers for the 21st century. Composed of teacher education faculty, university faculty from other disciplines, teachers and administrators from the local schools, and other interested community and business leaders, this task force discusses the role of the teacher in meeting the needs of contemporary students and how education needs to change in order to meet these needs. They prepare a recommendation to the university president for improving teacher education programs in order to prepare the kinds of teachers who can make a difference in P-12 schooling in the 21st century.

Once communication is established between the university and the local schools, many opportunities should arise naturally for interactive dialogue about matters of mutual concern. Recognizing that such open communication does not happen without some effort on both sides, a committee may be formed to facilitate such planning. A formal curriculum alliance composed of representatives from all schools involved may be formed to meet regularly to plan activities that will benefit everyone.

The National Education Goals

The 1989 Education Summit identified six goals for public education to achieve by the year 2000:

1. All children in America will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%.
3. American students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography, and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy.
4. American students will be the first in the world in mathematics and science achievement.
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

A 1992 report, *Learning a Living*, from the U.S. Department of Labor's Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS), emphasizes the need for education that goes beyond preparation for earning a living. The report states: "We want more from schools than productive workers. We want citizens who can discharge the responsibilities that go with living in a democratic society and with being parents." The Department of Labor recommends implementation of the following goals by 2000: (1) reinventing schools, (2) fostering workplace learning, (3) reorganizing the workplace, and (4) restructuring assessment. Widely acclaimed by leaders in education, this report provides specific suggestions that support school planning and also provides guidance for employers. To carry out these goals, state organizations such as the Minnesota Education Association recommend site-based decision making, which is based on the quality work process that has been adapted by many industries to "increase product quality and job satisfaction." Through this process "authority and responsibility are shared among all members of the school community" (Minnesota Education Association, 1991).

As states initiate efforts to work toward the six goals identified for national emphasis, and others they choose to include, communities have held meetings to select which of the goals to address first. Teacher educators should certainly play an active role in such community efforts. If community members agree, for example, that Goal #1 needs immediate attention, then professors who work with preschool and primary grade instruction should expect to be involved in collaborative planning. This community effort offers an opportunity for the university and the public schools to work together within the community to improve education.

University students should also be aware of the National Education Goals. They should be aware of the state efforts as well as local efforts to meet these goals, with issues being discussed in more than one course within the teacher education curriculum. As future teachers, they should become involved with local efforts to improve education as a part of their professionalization. Faculty members in teacher education can encourage involvement by having students report on such meetings, giving extra credit for attendance.

Planning for teacher education programs must also take these goals into consideration. Anything that makes for change in the P-12 schools has direct impact on teacher education. Only well-trained teachers can carry out curricula and provide the kind of instruction that will make it possible to attain the goals.

Research and Development

Teams of teachers, administrators, and professors will find it helpful to join forces in writing proposals for grants or other funding that may be available. Ideas may be generated through the interactive dialogues as participants identify a student need, perhaps a focus on developing self-esteem. A small grant proposal might be written to seek funding for a speaker and workshop leader so that teachers and professors alike might become better informed about, for example, improving writing across the curriculum. One of the most promising staff development efforts is the promotion of teacher-researcher activities, which encourage classroom teachers to monitor what is happening in the classroom, as will be discussed in the last section of the chapter. Grants are often made available to support such studies, e.g., those advertised each year by the National Council of Teachers of English.

Larger grants involve more work, but they are worth working on when major curriculum development in a school district or across the state, perhaps in science education, is planned. When significant restructuring is recommended a local school or district may work with a university team to develop a proposal. Teacher education faculty at Moorhead State University are leading the initiative in preparing a grant to promote the multiethnic/multicultural education of both preservice and inservice teachers. Together, the university, state-level educators, and local school personnel are writing a proposal for funding curriculum planning and faculty development that will prepare teachers to work with students from diverse cultures. A special emphasis is being placed on preparing teachers to work in urban schools. Ideas for grant proposals may be initiated by teachers in the public schools or by members of the university faculty. If frequent interaction is an accepted way of operating, it will be natural to collaborate on these efforts.

In summary, collaborative planning for and with the community schools should be considered an integral part of reconceptualizing teacher education. Such planning is a good way to move toward improving teacher education programs.

Collaborative Planning for Teacher Education

Collaboration is essential in planning for a strong teacher education program. As education faculty and departments begin to review university programs, it is helpful to include representative staff members from the P-12 schools as well as students who have graduated from teacher education programs. Since teacher education must be an integral part of the total university curriculum, it is important also that faculty from departments across the campus be represented. In this section the following concerns are addressed: follow-up studies of graduates and school personnel, integration of liberal arts studies and pedagogy, development of partnerships with the P-12 schools, provision of intercultural experiences for teacher trainees, and development of portfolios throughout the teacher education program.

These five aspects of teacher education deserve special consideration. They represent major areas for review and development if teacher education programs are to be effective.

Follow-up Studies of Graduates and School Personnel

To provide data, annual follow-up studies of graduates from teacher education programs should be planned. Questions can be structured to provide information specific to any area, such as knowledge of instructional technology. The survey should be carefully designed so that answering the questions does not require too much effort on the part of the respondent. Copies of the survey should also be coded in some way so that follow-up reminders can be sent after the first responses have been received. In a recent survey that was sent out by Moorhead State University (1992), 46 items were presented under four categories: Instruction, Major Program of Study, Advisement, and Professional Education Component.

Not only is it important that teacher education departments conduct such surveys of graduates from their programs, but it is also necessary that they utilize the results of such studies. This is a requirement by such accrediting bodies as the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The findings inform planners of students' perceptions of what they learned or did not learn through the planned curriculum, thus enabling them to improve the teacher education programs. For example, one point that is frequently made by recent graduates is the university's overemphasis on theory when such matters as discipline would have been more helpful. Such comments clearly remind professors not only to address classroom management, but also to communicate the relationship between theory and practice more effectively.

In addition to feedback from graduates, surveys of or discussions with personnel in the schools where student teachers are placed also prove invaluable. Principals, or whoever coordinates the placement of students, as well as selected cooperating teachers, can provide specific suggestions for strengthening the preparation of teachers. Since these people hire many university graduates, it is especially important that their ideas about teacher preparation be solicited because they are in a good position to note inadequacies that they perceive in graduates. A deficiency that may be pointed out is the lack of skill with the latest technology now being used in many schools. Interactive dialogue sessions might focus on this kind of discussion. Such dialogue may serve to clarify aims and to bring everyone closer together in reaching expected outcomes.

Integration of Liberal Arts Studies and Pedagogy

To be truly effective, teacher education must be a campuswide endeavor. Faculty members from many departments contribute to the preparation of teachers—all the faculty who offer liberal arts studies courses, as well as those who teach courses selected as electives or courses especially designed for students in teacher education. In fact, few faculty members on a comprehensive university campus have nothing at all to do with teacher education students. General efforts to improve undergraduate education, which impact directly on the education of future teachers, reflect the following research-based principles of good teaching published by the American Association of Higher Education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987):

- Good practice encourages student-faculty contact.
- Good practice encourages cooperation among students.
- Good practice encourages active learning.
- Good practice gives prompt feedback.
- Good practice emphasizes time on task.
- Good practice communicates high expectations.
- Good practice respects diverse talents and ways of learning.

Liberal arts studies then need to be integrated with pedagogy. In order to teach effectively, teachers need a breadth of knowledge drawn from various content areas, including pedagogy. John Goodlad (1990a) summarizes the broad knowledge base that any teacher needs:

- A foundation of knowledge about the nation's government and its expectations for citizens.
- The intellectual tools to participate broadly in the human conversation and to introduce young people to it.
- Pedagogical knowledge and skills necessary to arrange optimal conditions for educating the young.
- Understanding of the commonplaces of schooling (goals, clients, organization, curriculum, instruction, and evaluation), promising alternatives, the nature of healthy schools, and how to sustain renewal.

Goodlad points out that few institutions provide a sufficiently strong knowledge base in these four areas.

Each teacher education unit needs to examine its own collective thinking. Faculty members might begin by examining various ideas about the knowledge needed by teachers, such as those from Goodlad noted above. Then, they and other colleagues need to identify the knowledge base they consider essential for every teacher. This process of meeting to discuss what to include and to identify the assumptions they operate under can be useful growth experience.

Once the desired knowledge base is agreed on, faculty can determine how best to deliver this knowledge. Faculty need to review, for example, the undergraduate education offered students, both content presented and the teaching methods used. For example, the typical university education is often a series of discrete lecture courses. This affects the knowledge base of all teachers in the liberal arts studies and may also affect learning in major fields of study. As courses are typically delivered, learning may remain fractionated with students left to make what connections they can. Beginning students often have difficulty in bridging the gaps among the varied concepts, information, and applications that they encounter even within a single course, something more mature scholars take for granted. College students are even less able to make the leaps required to connect learnings from discipline to discipline. Professors who have become aware of this discrepancy have tried to integrate students' learning in various ways: special courses designed for future elementary teachers, interdisciplinary studies, team teaching and linked courses, and seminars and capstone courses for advanced students.

Cooperative faculty members, who want to upgrade instruction in the P-12 schools in their particular disciplines, may create basic courses especially for students who intend to become elementary teachers. Such courses are designed with the elementary school curriculum in mind. What are the basic concepts, for instance, that 6th-grade students usually learn in life science? Of course, the future elementary teacher needs a sound foundation in the sciences, but she or he does not need the in-depth, more sophisticated level of knowledge required of a high school science teacher or a person who plans a career in scientific research. Moorhead State University now offers two science courses designed especially for elementary teachers by professors in physics and biology. In the same way, the elementary teacher needs to know broad general concepts about the English language—for example, different regional dialects, the effect of sexism in language on students, the historical development of the English language, and how English grammar works—but he or she does not need to undertake extensive advanced courses in linguistics. A future elementary teacher needs to cover so many areas of study that in-depth work in all is impossible, or at least, impractical.

In addition, prospective teachers need courses that focus on translating knowledge from specific areas of study into meaningful learning experiences for students of different ages. These courses bring content from liberal studies and content from pedagogy together as teacher education students learn to engage younger learners with knowledge in effective ways, such as cooperative learning activities. Instructional strategies that are supported by research are recommended and explained by the education professor, who then guides future teachers in designing lesson plans, which they try out in classrooms with real students. These courses need to be reviewed periodically for effectiveness and the inclusion of up-to-date research findings. Such courses also offer an excellent opportunity for liberal arts studies professors to work more closely with teacher education faculty.

Interdisciplinary studies also prepare future teachers to present integrated instruction, which guides young learners to make connections across disciplines. Multicultural education is supported by interrelated studies that bring knowledge of ethnic backgrounds, concepts related to culture, and skills development together.

Team teaching and linked courses offer an opportunity to guide future teachers to integrate learning and to engage in more in-depth thinking. Team teaching requires the allocation of two professors for one course load as both professors need to be fully involved; this arrangement, therefore, proves more expensive. For that reason, in a time of budget constraints, team teaching may not be as readily approved. However, linking two courses—for example, introduction to education and a psychology course or a course in secondary methods of teaching social studies with a history course—is relatively simple. All students enrolled in the course in pedagogy need to enroll also in the liberal arts studies course. The two professors involved need to meet for planning, and they may also find it advantageous to visit each other's classes on occasion. Therefore, having the two classes scheduled back-to-back is helpful, but not absolutely mandatory. Because students become actively engaged with the content, professors who have tried such arrangements are enthusiastic about the results.

Seminars for advanced students and capstone courses also serve to stimulate thinking and to encourage students to integrate their knowledge as they approach graduation from a program. Teacher education students can address current issues in an education seminar, meeting with experienced teachers and administrators to exchange ideas. They may read a provocative book together, for example, Mike Rose's *Lives on the Boundary* (1989) or Tracy Kidder's *Among School Children* (1989). This is the time when they should surely assume a professional stance as they step into the teacher role. Students learn to reflect on their learning, to integrate knowledge, and to see themselves fulfilling a new adult role. Capstone courses also involve advanced students in consolidating their thinking and presenting their ideas in writing. This is the time for preparing position papers and a statement of philosophy for students who expect to be hired as teachers within the coming year. Publishing such writing periodically makes clear the significance of what these future teachers think. Such senior papers will be included in the individual portfolios students are preparing. (See the section, Portfolio Assessment in Teacher Education.)

Partnerships with the P-12 Schools to Provide More Effective Practicum Experience

Various kinds of clinical or professional development schools have been described, usually following the "teaching hospital" model. Nystrand (1991) summarizes this movement in *Professional Development Schools: Toward a New Relationship for Schools and Universities.* As he notes, such ideas first appeared in the 1980s in writing by scholars, for example, John Goodlad, and in the work of such groups as the Carnegie Task Force and the Holmes Group (1986, 1990) of research universities. The characteristic common to all of the proposed models is close collaboration between the university's teacher education program and teachers in the public schools. The goal of this collaboration is to provide a more effective, realistic program for educating novice teachers.

John Goodlad (1990b) and others advocate the establishment of partnerships with the local schools, but the form and purpose of these structures varies. The most common kind of partnership arrangement between the university and local schools predates the discussion of "partnership schools," that is, the placement of a student teacher with a cooperating teacher for several weeks as a culminating experience at the end of a 4-year teacher education program. Today the concept of the partnership school has been extended to describe a more comprehensive model that involves learning for everyone concerned. The assumptions on which a partnership school is based usually include:

- The interrelated processes of teaching and learning are highly complex. In addition to studying content in the liberal arts and pedagogy, working closely with experienced teachers is an effective way for novice teachers to learn how to teach, that is, how to bring content, theory, and practice together.
- Experienced teacher practitioners have much to offer university teacher education programs. The creation of a clinical professor role for selected teachers not only empowers the practicing teacher but also improves field experiences for university students.
- Experienced teachers need to continue to update their learning each year through interacting with other professional teachers, and through continued study.
- University professors working in teacher education programs need constantly to update their knowledge of theory and research. They also need to remain in close contact with the P-12 schools so that their knowledge of applied theory is informed by practice.

Considered the best strategy for reforming education, partnerships between higher education and P-12 schools first became common in the 1980s. Since then the numbers of partnerships have grown steadily each year. These joint ventures are expected to continue increasing in the '90s and into the 21st century. "Our whole educational system is inextricably linked," stated College Board President Donald Stewart. "Collaboration represents one way to bring about education in K through 12, K through graduate school, and actually, K through life." Collaboration requires, he added, "strong commitment from the top leaders" in school and colleges, and "mutual trust and respect" among all participants (Stewart, 1990).

An interesting partnership that exemplifies a healthy school-university relationship is the Scientist in Residence Program in the Detroit Lakes (Minnesota) School District. A university professor or student in physics spends a week in each elementary school coaching teachers on teaching science. The high school physics teacher, also an adjunct professor, conducts a Kids Teaching Kids Program, which engages high school students in teaching science topics for a week. As the teacher states, "Everyone involved benefits equally from our project, and we hear about these benefits every day. At the university level, there is the recognition that the high school is an equal partner in making some improvements in education. And, in the elementary schools involved, both the teachers and students feel as if they're a part of a larger whole" (Robbins, 1991).

Partnership schools can be perceived as including practicum experiences for university students at all stages. Ideally, students begin working in the schools when they first begin their education coursework, often in the sophomore year. During their training, they need to experience a wide range of school settings, cultural and economic diversity, as well as innovative, cutting-edge methodologies. In order to provide this variety, it will be necessary, therefore, for students to be in varied schools, so some practica will be short while others require longer periods of time. Even adding a fifth year for teacher education does not solve the problems inherent in fully preparing young people to enter the teaching profession as a finished product. Preparing a fully trained professional in any teacher education program remains an unrealistic expectation. Because teaching is a combination of skill and art, teaching abilities must continue to grow throughout a teacher's career, the result of encountering numerous students in varied learning situations over a period of time.

On the other hand, expecting universities and the schools to work together to develop informed, competent teachers makes sense, for the schools and universities share the common goal of providing excellent education for all children. Goodlad (1990a) points out the danger, however, which must be recognized, of maintaining the status quo by depending too heavily on having students emulate the practicing teacher. If a teacher education program is firmly grounded in current research, students should expect that they have fresh up-to-date ideas to share with cooperating teachers. As part of their study of interpersonal relationships, they should certainly learn the importance of getting along with school personnel, but they should also expect to observe practices that may not be worth emulating for reasons they can articulate in seminars. Here is an opportunity to stress critical thinking abilities. University professors must play an active coaching role that supports student progress while balancing the connections between theory and research-based practice. Both the novitiate and the experienced teacher must perceive teaching as an open-ended opportunity to interact with young learners. Teaching that has become packaged and repetitious over time is hardly worth emulating. Partnerships must involve growth for all persons involved, as will be pointed out below.

Beginning Practica Partnerships. Ideally, experience in the schools will be provided as part of the first education courses that students take. Time spent observing and assisting in a classroom provides education students with a realistic picture of what a teacher's day is like. They will, of course, need guidance about what to look for and a chance to discuss their observations with college supervisors. At this stage, students need guidance in identifying what they are expected to look for; only gradually will they come to know how to see what is really going on as a skillful teacher interacts with a given group of children. Such experience assists them in evaluating their choice of teaching as a career. At the same time, classroom experience lends more meaning to concurrent instruction about young learners and how to teach them effectively. From this beginning stage, too, it is important that university students begin to think of themselves as teachers, as colleagues with teachers in P-12 schools and collaborators with the teacher education faculty. They need to make a commitment to teaching as a career and to expect to expend considerable time and energy to move them forward in their preparation. Each should begin keeping a professional portfolio at this time.

A Partnership School—A Community of Learners Model (Tiedt, 1991). Teacher education faculty and the staff of a school that want to establish a Partnership School to prepare teachers for the 21st century need to meet together to discuss expectations and to plan together. One effective model creates a Community of Learners (COL) in which all members of a collaborative community expect to learn together. This community includes:

- Beginning practicum students (sophomores, juniors, seniors),
- Student teachers (seniors who have had considerable practicum experience),
- Teachers employed in the school who are open to learning and willing to assume a new role,
- Teacher education professors who are good team members, and
- A school administrator who wants to promote staff development.

Members of a COL must share a strong commitment to make the community work. Organization of such a partnership begins with interactive dialogue. A simple way to start is to create a cohort group of advanced teacher education students, large enough to supply a critical mass (at least four students working with four cooperating teachers and one university supervisor). Practicum students can also be included so they become acquainted with the model and its expectations. Thus, the Community of Learners may consist of 8 practicum students, 4 student teachers, 4 interested teachers, 1 school administrator, and 1 professor: a community of approximately 12-18 people appears to be ideal. More than one community could be established in a single school, perhaps one at the primary grade level with another in the upper elementary grades. In middle schools or high schools, a community may be composed of teachers in specific areas, such as English language arts and social studies.

The purpose of this community is to promote learning and to integrate planning. A given community may choose to develop a common theme, for example, patterns, family life, or ways of knowing. Thus, they can share ideas and resources and plan activities that involve grouping of children for varied purposes. Another community may focus on restructuring traditional classrooms for multiage grouping or the accommodation of different learning styles. Planning and carrying out a whole language and literature program in the social studies might be the focus of a COL in the middle school, an exciting collaborative endeavor! Each community may select a text or current articles to read to provide a common knowledge base from which to operate. The need for regular planning meetings of members of the community necessitates freeing teachers for several hours each week.

The chief requirement for a successful learning community is that all participants be committed to the endeavor and that participants feel positive about collaboration. Together, the members of the community will plan appropriate teaching experiences for students that may extend over a full year. In some partnership schools, 5th-year interns will become part of the community in order to extend their learning and to assist the school in achieving what it is trying to do. A Community of Learners model should lead to achieving such outcomes as the following:

- Experienced teachers will grow professionally by developing new roles as they work actively to educate novice teachers. They will find their knowledge respected and seen as significant.
- University teacher education professors will renew and enhance their knowledge of teaching and learning through active participation in collaborative efforts in one school. University teachers will be reminded of the difficulty and complexity of classroom teaching.
- Students in teacher education will have in-depth experience using such innovative methods of teaching as process writing across the curriculum, cooperative learning, and concept mapping; and they will learn to integrate technology into the total curriculum. They will experience and understand how to adapt these methods to teaching particular groups of students.
- A team of educators will plan collaboratively to meet children's individual and group needs as the team learns how to teach more effectively in collaborative settings and how to work with outcome-based education and innovative methods of assessment. They will see themselves as change agents.
- The Community of Learners team will create a new model for preparing novice teachers to work in future-oriented schools, a model that can be expanded to encompass the preparation of other university students in the teacher education program. This model will be expanded into other district schools, as appropriate.

Such partnerships enable experienced and novice teachers to work together to improve the education of children. For example, they may make decisions that enable diverse children, including those identified as at risk, to learn to their fullest potential. Together they can investigate research-based strategies that engage children in varied literacy activities and in different kinds and levels of thinking. They can solve problems together, perhaps devising new ways of managing the complexities of the modern classroom. Novice teachers will be an integral part of the planning process. In the beginning of such an experimental program, while the participants get acquainted and begin to explore the parameters of this flexible arrangement, members of the team will probably operate along fairly traditional lines. Gradually, however, it is expected that the community members will become more venturesome as they experiment with varied possibilities; e.g., multiage grouping, working on broad themes together, or extending the learning community to include the children themselves in planning activities.

As we define such expectations, it is interesting to note that many of these ideas are rooted in the work of John Dewey. The community participants may want to revisit the work of such scholars as John Dewey, Robert Glaser, and others. They may also choose to read a few works in common to provide a basis for their planning, for example:

Marzano, R. (1992). *A different kind of classroom: Teaching with dimensions of learning.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

NCTE Committee on Classroom Practicies in Teaching English. (1986). *Activities to promote critical thinking: Classroom practices in teaching English.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. ED 273985

Parker, W. C. (1991). *Renewing the social studies curriculum.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. ED 334114

Resnick, L. B. (1987). *Education and learning to think.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press. ED 289832

Schon, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner. Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. ED 295518

Smith, F. (1990). *To think.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Providing structure, but also the freedom to discover and to try new ideas, this interactive model enables participants to decide how best to carry out collaborative, facilitative teaching that guides young learners to achieve. A weekly half-day planning session needs to be part of this plan if the community of learners is to collaborate and to learn together. Because novice teachers are actively engaged from the beginning in generating ways of meeting the diverse needs of children, they will learn to perceive themselves as scholars who will continue to grow as they meet new challenges. This new model for preparing novice teachers creates the kind of partnership in which everybody learns!

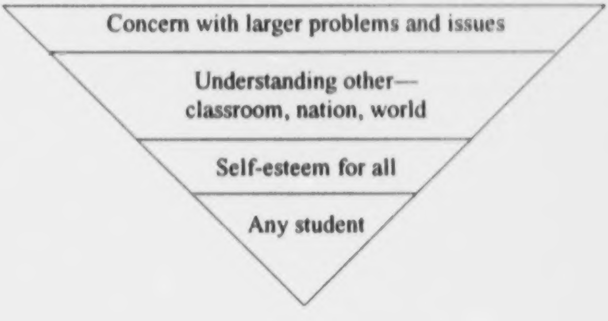
Intercultural Experience for Teacher Trainees

As the demography of the P-12 schools changes to include increasing numbers of culturally diverse students, it is essential that future teachers be prepared to teach in a "multiculture." Teacher education students need multicultural education. They need to learn about different ethnic groups in the United States, and they need to learn the geography and the history of the world in which they live. They also need experiences working with students who have language and cultural backgrounds different than their own. As Carl Grant (1975) points out:

> An education that is multicultural is comprehensive and fundamental to all educational endeavors. Given an understanding of the nature of human differences and the realization that individuals approach concepts from their own perspectives, advocates of education that is multicultural are consistent in their belief that respect for diversity and individual difference is the concept's central ingredient.

"All people in the United States need multicultural education, and we recognize that the learning of such concepts must begin during the early years," state Tiedt and Tiedt (1990). If children are to gain these concepts, it is mandatory that teachers be prepared to guide P-12 learners to understand cultural diversity and what it means in terms of understanding and getting along with others. As Tiedt and Tiedt (pp. 28-29) explain:

> Multicultural education in the schools must be designed for student learning. It begins rightfully with each student's self-concept or esteem and expands in ever-widening circles to the understanding of others. It leads students to move from focus on self to involvement and consideration of others, empathy. Eventually, multicultural education engages students in the larger issues and problems of the world, thus:



Our country's greater involvement with trade around the world mandates that teachers have a global, international, and multicultural perspective to share with young learners.

Although cultural diversity in the schools is receiving greater attention today, this emphasis on multicultural education is scarcely new. Since 1972, Minnesota has had a human relations requirement for students who are seeking teacher licensure since 1972. Students enrolled in teacher education may meet this requirement by taking electives from the list of courses approved for this purpose at each university. Experienced teachers from other states who wish to teach in Minnesota must also meet the human relations requirement. In 1991, this emphasis was strengthened when the state's Board of Education passed a rule requiring each school district to file a plan for developing a multicultural curriculum that includes the contributions of all ethnic groups, is gender fair, and demonstrates sensitivity to those with disabilities.

Such rules impact directly on teacher education as well. To promote multicultural education, teacher education faculty need to insist that students seek experiences in classrooms that offer exposure to varied cultures. If such experience is not available near the students' home campus, it can be made available in various ways:

- The university may provide transportation to areas where students can shadow a teacher for one or more days in an inner-city school.
- A cohort group of sophomores may spend a quarter studying and working in the schools of a culturally diverse district while taking human relations courses with a faculty member who accompanies this cohort group.
- Students may elect to student teach in countries around the world through a student teaching abroad program.

In addition to providing such experiences, faculty should select texts for courses that include multicultural concepts. They may also have students read narratives that present the lives of culturally diverse persons in an empathetic manner. Relevant topics, for example, sexism, stereotypes, and self-esteem, should be discussed and included in lesson planning. Teachers must dare to address such controversial issues in the classroom.

Faculty members need to take multicultural education seriously and to see that it is infused throughout the total teacher education curriculum. Through such experiences students begin to appreciate cultural diversity, and they begin to learn how to deal with multicultural concepts in the classroom. Racism and prejudice continue to be current concerns in all parts of the United States so that instruction in P-12 classrooms can scarcely ignore these societal problems. Future teachers must be better prepared to teach in settings of diversity.

Portfolio Assessment in Teacher Education

As teachers clarify the outcomes they expect students to achieve, alternative methods of assessing achievement are needed. Present methods of evaluating success in teacher education remain fragmented, based, for example, on passing individual courses. Even student teaching performance is not as effectively assessed as it might be to maximize potential learning. Such a complex program as teacher education requires a broad assessment plan that deals with content knowledge and performance. In teacher education, a natural assessment method can be based on the development of a portfolio over a period of time, culminating with the student teaching experience.

If begun as soon as students enroll in their first education courses, a portfolio serves as an excellent learning strategy and an assessment measure, which can be checked periodically. A portfolio varies from student to student, and it evolves as each student progresses. Contents may include reading summaries, papers written for course requirements, an audiocassette recording of interactions with students or an oral presentation, a videocassette demonstrating teaching ability—anything the individual student chooses to include. A well-organized portfolio will show evidence of periodic self-evaluation and reflection on what is being learned, metacognition. Since assessment is based on quality rather than quantity, the portfolio should be reviewed regularly by the student and his or her supervisor and reshaped, as appropriate. Essentially, the portfolio is a profile of an individual student's progress toward becoming a teacher, which can be examined at any point in the program. Thus, it should serve both faculty and student well as a learning tool and an assessment measure.

Admission into Teacher Education. Many universities are requiring the development of portfolios beginning with the first education course that students take. A portfolio, a collection of selected student work that serves as a basis for on-going evaluation, is useful to both the students and faculty who are guiding their development. The preparation of a portfolio causes students to be aware of the learning process and to think about what they are learning. This metacognitive activity requires reflection. It also involves evaluation as students select what to include to provide an accurate picture of themselves. If students are required to take several education courses before being formally admitted into teacher education, their portfolio can be assessed as part of the admissions process. This provides interviewers with a much clearer picture of the abilities and the commitment of a student who states that he or she wants to become a teacher.

Defining the Portfolio: Purpose and Content. Because students need guidance in creating a personal portfolio, faculty in teacher education working collaboratively with students and other educators will need to decide on the purpose of the portfolio. This planning team will determine just what kinds of content are appropriate for a future teacher's portfolio at different stages of development. They may decide that certain elements should appear in every portfolio, for example, periodic writing samples or a videotape of lesson presentations. The portfolio of a future teacher will necessarily be far different from an artist's portfolio. Although it may include printed or written materials, it may also include audio- or videotapes, photographs of displays or activities, and samples of created 3-dimensional items. The planning team needs to develop a set of guidelines to be shared with students and advisors. Emphasis should be placed on evaluation, selectivity, and varied ways of presenting the desired message to a reviewer. Although portfolio assessment must allow for individuality, the comparison, analysis, evaluation, and synthesis that takes place should help students grow. The following observations are important considerations in using portfolio assessment in teacher education:

- The evaluation of portfolios is labor intensive, particularly since the portfolios will be assessed at several points during the teacher education program. However, the amount of information provided, the opportunities for coaching students, and the interactive involvement of students themselves makes the process worthwhile.
- A portfolio does not include everything a student produces; the selection process is part of the learning process involved.
- Criteria for assessing the portfolio must be mutually negotiated, clearly stated, and discussed with teacher education students throughout the program.
- Using portfolio assessment in university teacher education programs will prepare students for the use of portfolio assessment in the P-12 schools, which are leading the way with this kind of performance assessment. Experience with this assessment mechanism will help teacher education students understand how multiple assessments provide significant information about learners that influences teaching decisions.

In order to carry out portfolio assessment successfully, we may need to clarify our role as coaches, not just as persons who grade students. We may have to teach our students to become more independent thinkers, so they no longer ask uncertainly: "Is this what you want?" Developing a portfolio should never be permitted to become busy work, but should be perceived by teacher education faculty and students alike as a responsible, creative task that adds to student learning. It is not unlikely that teacher education faculty and students who undertake the use of portfolio assessment for the first time will find themselves learning together as the process and products are shaped toward an authentic and effective indicator of quality. Since there is no limiting definition to be concerned about, faculty and students can be innovative and flexible in their decisions. Part of the process of moving from student teacher to teacher is learning to take more responsibility for one's own learning and growth. Collaborative development and assessment of a portfolio helps show students how best to move forward toward this goal.

Collaborative Planning to Support Teachers in the Schools

Another aspect of the partnership school arrangement between universities and school districts should focus on supporting teachers in the classroom. Support for the development and growth of prospective teachers doesn't end when they finish school. Part of any partnership agreement should include support for beginning teachers during their first few years. A second emphasis of support for teachers is the provision of staff development for the experienced teacher who needs periodic renewal.

Support for Beginning Teachers

Considering the complexity of the teaching/learning processes, it is impossible to prepare a teacher education student for every eventuality that may occur during that first year. Because the first year of teaching is so unpredictable, it is important that the potential need for support be recognized so that it can be available. If we want our beginning teachers to succeed and to stay with teaching as a career, support for several years can make the difference. This support can take various forms.

Preparing for the First Year in Advance. As soon as students are accepted formally into the teacher education program, they should begin thinking and behaving like teachers. They should begin preparing mentally for the classroom experience. Discussions should focus on the features that distinguish a teacher from a college student, for example, dressing more formally. Perhaps students can dress like a teacher when they give a formal presentation to the class. Certainly, they should dress and behave appropriately whenever they go to the local schools for practicum experiences. The transition from college student to teacher will not occur overnight, but the expectation that it will occur should be made clear.

Attitudes and ways of thinking may both lead to and follow from changes in outward appearances. Working with the self-evaluation required during the process of developing a portfolio will engage students in responsible monitoring of their learning. Expectations of professors in the program should also support the gradual change toward becoming a young professional. Assignments in methods courses, for example, might include the regular reading of an appropriate professional journal. For instance, in a language arts methods course, students could subscribe to and read *Language Arts*, one of the official journals of the National Council of Teachers of English, which is available for an inexpensive student rate. Reading the articles in each issue could be the focus of cooperative student learning activities.

Having students work in cohort groups that progress through the program together also provides psychological support for students. Knowing other students who are at the same stage of development lends a certain security. Cohorts can depend on each other for friendly advice. Members of such groups tend to provide support even after students have graduated and have acquired their first teaching positions.

Managing the First Years of Teaching. How can we best support the novice teacher through those crucial first years? Various kinds of support are possible, for example:

A Buddy System—School districts frequently assign an experienced teacher in the same school to serve as a buddy to a newly hired teacher. Buddies should be assigned in a way that neither burdens the experienced teacher with responsibility for training nor makes the new teacher feel stupid for needing assistance. Following this system, the new teacher has a specific person to turn to, if she or he has a problem or even what might seem to be a trivial question. Having a buddy makes it easier to go to early organizational meetings where everyone else appears to know everyone in the group. This friend can assist the newcomer in handling such routine matters as finding supplies or arranging to use the computer lab. Such buddy assignments often prove to be lasting friendships.

Seminars for Beginning Teachers—The university can provide a seminar course especially designed for beginning teachers. Offered through continuing education, this seminar may carry 1-3 credits so that beginning teachers can remain with the group for more than 1 year. Meetings held once a week at a convenient hour after school focus on concerns important to beginning teachers, for example, classroom management techniques. Peer group support, facilitated by university faculty, fosters the idea of teaching as lifelong learning. Led by an empathetic, informed university professor, these group sessions provide a safe environment for the beginning teacher where problems can be shared and discussed. Many beginners will continue to attend these seminars for 2 or 3 years with those who have more experience reaching out to those with less. Such groups may read a useful book on a current topic, for instance, Kathleen Yancey's *Portfolios in the Writing Classroom* published by the National Council of Teachers of English (1992) or Robert Marzano's *Cultivating Thinking in English and the Language Arts* (1991), also published by the Council. Thus, teacher education leadership may be demonstrated in choosing a book of current interest as the focus for group discussion.

Mentor Support—Kentucky has developed a well-structured, formal program that provides a team of three trained personnel to work directly with each individual teacher newly hired in the state. No matter where the new teacher was trained, the beginning teacher is assigned a team of three: a resource teacher from the same school, an administrator, and a university professor. These three persons observe in the teacher's classroom and provide feedback to help the new teacher improve her or his teaching abilities, focusing on such identified skills as questioning or use of wait time. At regional sites, extensive training is provided each year using videotaped classroom simulations for all people who will serve on mentor teams. This induction program has been used successfully and evaluated over a 10-year period. Providing such assistance before weak areas grow into problems should encourage teachers to stick with it through what may be a difficult beginning year.

Enhancement of Teaching for Experienced Teachers

The experienced teacher needs to continue learning. Having taught for 5 or more years, a teacher recognizes more clearly the needs of his or her students. The experienced teacher, who has basic concerns such as classroom management and lesson planning under control, is ready to reflect on larger issues and concerns. It is at this time that teachers are more open to studies of research and a program that focuses on bringing new research-supported theories into the classroom to try them out. As the teacher remains in teaching for 10 or more years, however, career teachers may become disillusioned with facing the same kinds of problems. They may feel overwhelmed by the conflict between their expectations and their performance. They may become bored or burned out, and require some kind of renewal. A variety of stimulating activities can be offered to experienced teachers.

Summer Institutes. The intensive, 5-week summer institutes offered by the National Writing Project, which provide stipends for participants, offer experienced teachers exciting new ways of teaching writing. Sharing interesting ideas and reading each other's writing develops a camaraderie that is not usually associated with inservice workshops. Members of the writing project continue to meet socially and professionally to share what they are doing with writing in their classrooms. They come to appreciate their own skills and knowledge. Similar workshops or institutes are often offered focusing on science education. Learning new ideas can be stimulating, giving an experienced teacher a real boost.

Team Teaching with a University Professor. Fine experienced teachers have much to offer in a university classroom. A high school English teacher could, for example, team with an English professor to present the "Methods of Teaching English" course. An experienced first grade teacher could collaborate with a professor to teach a curriculum course for students specializing in early childhood education. Planning a course with a professor can prove stimulating as the two develop a collegial relationship. School districts can provide the necessary released time to permit the teacher to attend the class for a quarter or a semester, a good investment in staff development.

Teachers as Researchers. Studying what is happening in the classroom can give an experienced teacher a fresh perspective of the daily teaching routine. Learning to monitor what is happening in the classroom, for example, what kinds of questions students are asking, adds new interest to the teaching/learning process. Collaborative studies can also be developed with a university faculty member. The National Council of Teachers of English offers small grants to support both individual and collaborative research studies each year. The university may sponsor a teacher research group, which brings together teachers and faculty members who are interested in learning more about classroom research. At regular meetings of the group participants can share ideas and discuss the progress of the studies they are undertaking. Publication of the reports of the studies each year will lend value to the work.

Reading and Writing Groups. Groups of teachers can meet to talk about books they read with each person sharing a book he or she would recommend as providing insight into teaching. A teacher who has read Jerry Spinelli's *Maniac Magee* (1990), for example, may read portions of this award-winning story revealing one young boy's struggle to live in the inner city. Others may then want to read the same book and to compare notes after they have completed the book. Another group may focus on writing, which they share when they come together. Such writing may remain at the personal level, or some may be interested in writing for publication. Several members could work on an article about their insights into teaching, an article that could be submitted to a suitable journal, an additional means of recognizing the worth of what teachers do. Any group that meets regularly in this way gets acquainted beneath the surface, and that experience itself is supportive.

Summary

Collaborating to improve education in the P-12 schools is a stimulating, rewarding activity, whether it involves curriculum development or support for beginning teachers. Rethinking and restructuring teacher preparation programs is also an exciting and challenging endeavor. The reward is that novice teachers will be better prepared to meet the needs of young learners as they work in classrooms of the 21st century. Our hope is that they may eventually stand beside such outstanding teachers as Eliot Wigginton (1986) who, after teaching high school for 20 years, states:

> I teach because it is something I do well; it is a craft I enjoy and am intrigued by; there is room within its certain boundaries for infinite variety and flexibility of approach, and so if I become bored or my work becomes

routine, I have no one to blame but myself; and unlike other jobs I could have, I sometimes receive indications that I am making a difference in the quality of people's lives.

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IV

Teaching and Teacher Education: An Institutional Challenge and Commitment

Janet S. Gross

At the beginning of Norton Juster's enchanting allegory, *The Phantom Toll Booth* (1961), young Milo has yet to set out on his imaginary journey to The Lands Beyond. From the reader's perspective, he appears an aimless child, one who really doesn't know where he is headed, or why, in fact, he is going. Boredom permeates his very being and his every experience, especially that of going to school:

> "I can't see the point in learning to solve useless problems, or subtracting turnips from turnips, or knowing where Ethiopia is or how to spell February." And, since no one bothered to explain otherwise, he regarded the process of seeking knowledge as the greatest waste of time of all. (p. 9)

But by the time Milo re-enters the toll booth, having subdued warring factions led by King Azaz the Unabridged and the mercurial Mathemagician and having united the princesses of sweet Rhyme and pure Reason, he is a changed little boy. No longer dispirited and lacking direction, he now views the world around him with expectation and wonder:

> And, in the very room in which he sat, there were books that could take you anywhere, and things to invent, and make, and build, and break, and all the puzzle and excitement of everything he didn't know—music to play, songs to sing, and worlds to imagine and then someday make real. His thoughts darted eagerly about as everything looked new—and worth trying. (p. 253)

Milo's awakening to the "puzzle and excitement of everything he didn't know" is precisely the transformation we are seeking for each of our students. What stands between a real-life Milo and a successful journey through the toll booth, however, is not a roster of allegorical figures with names such as Soundkeeper, Humbug, and Dr. Dischord, but a series of real-life teachers who, all too often, are called upon to work miracles without the aid of the toll booth's magic.

The Distancing of the Arts and Sciences and Teacher Education

The preparation of teachers capable of awakening and then capturing their students' curiosity and imagination is not a simple task or one responsive to magic wands. To the contrary, the transition from undergraduate to full-fledged teacher involves an extremely complex and demanding process, one that requires the knowledge and skills of many disciplines, and one that clearly extends beyond those faculty members housed in colleges of education. It is, in fact, a responsibility that reaches beyond the universities themselves to the surrounding communities, the state, and the nation. Our graduates who choose to teach in the public schools have the potential to influence future generations in significant and profound ways. The content and quality of their preparation must be of paramount importance to all of us—whether we be faculty in education or arts and sciences; school districts providing practica for student teachers and/or prescribing (and possibly financing) continuing education for in-service teachers; state departments of education setting standards and certification requirements; or a nation now attempting to cope with the explosive tensions of racial and social inequities and a sagging economy.

Recognizing the magnitude of the challenges that today confront our nation and its interrelated educational system (including the problematic complexity of the system itself), higher education alone cannot possibly attempt even to grapple with all the pieces of these intricate social phenomena. We can and must, however, extend our active support to the public schools by raising the education of teachers to a higher priority within our own institutions, recruiting more of our able students into the teaching profession, and making every effort to develop curricula that are dynamic, engaging, and empowering—curricula which, in turn, will help produce the capable and inspiring teachers we so desperately need.

It is in the areas of curricular design, teaching, and learning that faculty in colleges of arts and sciences must rejoin their colleagues in colleges of education, and once again rise to the challenges of preparing a new generation of teachers. As part of this effort, the liberal arts must resume a central role in the teacher education curriculum—a role that they formerly enjoyed and which, until recently, had remained unchallenged from the Middle Ages. Even during the early years of our present century, the preparation of America's teachers tended to be quite broadly based and included a curriculum composed primarily of arts and science disciplines—a practice that recognized that future teachers would, in fact, be teaching those very subjects.

A survey of early catalogues from my own institution—Lock Haven University, founded in 1870 as a normal school—certainly suggests such a perspective. The 2-year course of study leading to the Bachelor of the Elements degree included preparation in reading and elocution, rhetoric and English classics, Latin, algebra, geography, physiology, botany, history, vocal music, and drawing. Unlike today's elementary education curriculum, where professional studies generally make up 30% to 35% of a teacher's preparation, Lock Haven's students during the 1880s were limited to three education courses—school economy, methods of instruction, and mental philosophy—in addition to "at least forty-five minutes daily practice in the Model School for one-half of a school year, and two meetings each week for the discussion of the Practice of Teaching." Yes, pedagogy had its place in the curriculum, but it certainly was not the primary focus. To quote from the 1887 catalogue: "The professional teacher is of necessity the ripe scholar, the diligent student, the intelligent master, or mistress, of the whole round of studies taught. Formal, mechanical rote memorizing and mouthing of traditional lore will no longer meet the demand."

Examinations required of those entering the teaching profession at the turn of the century also reflected an emphasis on content, as Stanford educator Lee Shulman demonstrates in his discussion of licensing procedures (Shulman, 1986). Again in contrast to current practice, only 50 of the 1,000 possible points on the 1875 California teachers examination were assigned to "Theory and Practice of Teaching." The other 950 points were devoted to topics as diverse as oral grammar, physiology, natural philosophy, and industrial drawing. And the exams were not easy! How many of our 4-year college graduates can "Define specific gravity" or "Divide 88 into two such parts that shall be to each other as 2/3 is to 4/5"? As Shulman concludes: "The assumptions underlying those tests (and Lock Haven's early curriculum) are clear. The person who presumes to teach subject matter to children must demonstrate knowledge of that subject matter as a prerequisite to teaching. Although knowledge of the theories and methods of teaching is important, it plays a decidedly secondary role in the qualifications of a teacher" (Shulman, 1986, p. 5).

How did pedagogy and professional studies triumph over the liberal arts disciplines within the teacher education curriculum? Why is it now necessary to raise these questions and exhort arts and sciences faculty to assume more responsibility for the preparation of teachers? At least part of the answer, I believe, can be found in ongoing discussion and debate about the history of professionalism, the nature of knowledge and the structure of the academy. Today, for example, we are hearing more and more about the inadequacies of higher education's current organization: the problems inherent in its division into departments defined by disciplines, the loyalty of faculty to their discipline rather than to their institution, and the narrowness of the disciplines themselves. While attention to these issues is fairly recent, fragmentation within the academy is not a novel phenomenon but one which has been evolving steadily over the decades.

From our historical vantage point, we can trace the all-too-similar paths of the then-fledgling disciplinary associations as they carved out their bodies of knowledge and methods of inquiry at the turn of the century and gradually confined themselves to cubbyholes, discrete and estranged from each other. Philosophy, for example—"the field which has traditionally known no bounds, raised all the questions which humans have wanted to raise about the universe and our place within it, regardless of the apparent hopelessness of answering them" (Wilshire, 1990, p. 101)—took up the gauntlet of science and pursued the precision of logic in its quest for intellectual hegemony. In place of its formerly boundless space, philosophy created "its own domain that no other field would be tempted to steal, not because it seemed so ambitious, but because of its extreme formalism, abstraction, crystalline purity, and Mandarin exactitude" (p. 112).

Gradually, a defined territory and a prescriptive method of inquiry developed in virtually all the arts and science disciplines as well as the professions (Craige, 1988, for example, on the development of English as a field of study). With the increasing tendency of each discipline to seek dominance over a narrowly defined and jealously guarded body of knowledge came, almost unavoidably, estrangement and fragmentation. It is no wonder that there is currently little communication, and often much suspicion, across colleges of education and arts and sciences. Even departments/disciplines as closely allied as philosophy, literature, and history have little to say to one another.

The Need for a Holistic Approach

Despite the creation of new and powerful knowledge, which can be credited to the methodologies of the disciplines, there are also certain troubling consequences resulting from the academy's intense professionalization—consequences reinforced early on by America's eager adoption of the Germanic research model. Most disturbing for undergraduate education, and for the preparation of teachers in particular, however, has been the resultant devaluation of teaching in favor of research within the disciplines. Since teachers tend to imitate the teaching practices they experienced as students, it is all the more critical that education majors be taught by extremely skilled educators. Yet, as all in academia well know, the professional and material rewards for scholarly research are substantially greater than those for excellence in teaching. Dedication to research is cultivated from the first years of graduate training, for today's graduate schools have as their highest priority the preparation of researchers and scholars—even though the majority of their graduates who remain in higher education will find their way into institutions whose primary mission is the education of undergraduates.

Most of us, for example, have had occasion to read letters of recommendation for prospective faculty members that belabor these candidates' future as publishing scholars, but which dismiss their abilities and potential in the classroom with a brisk aside: "I have heard that Ms. Smith is a good teacher." Horror stories abound throughout the academy of brilliant teachers who have been denied tenure for lack of publication. The opposite scenario, unfortunately, is also true. Although we are beginning to read and hear about reversals of this trend, we must do more than passively anticipate a change of attitude toward the value of undergraduate teaching. Administrators and promotion committees must insure that the new emphasis upon teaching be given appropriate support. Higher education cannot define itself as concerned about education, and especially the education of teachers, unless administrators are willing to provide the resources to educate, technologically equip, and nurture those faculty whom we offer as role models to a future generation of teachers and citizens.

While it is the responsibility of the university as a whole to value good teaching, there are other by-products of academia's emphasis upon research and subsequent devaluation of teaching that additionally require the shared attention of faculty in education and arts and sciences. Too often, for example, those students preparing to be teachers receive less than appropriate attention from faculty in arts and sciences. Faculty tend to focus their energy upon their own majors, upon those students who will work in their field as practitioners (and to a much lesser extent as scholars and researchers), rather than upon those students who will teach their discipline in the public schools. The opportunity to become involved in undergraduate research, for example, is frequently reserved for disciplinary majors—not the student preparing to teach physics or biology.

But the onus for this deplorable situation falls not only upon arts and science faculty, nor can their seeming lack of interest in education students be blamed upon their allegiance to their disciplines. At my own institution, for example, those students who will be teaching mathematics, foreign languages, and social studies in the high schools are secondary education majors, not math, French, and history majors. The curricula they follow, like those at many other state-owned institutions, are defined by state departments of education and interpreted and overseen by a college of education. We should not wonder that faculty in the arts and sciences disciplines feel little ownership for these programs, or responsibility for their students. And given the seeming disinterestedness of arts and sciences faculty in the elementary education students who populate their general education courses (often in fairly large numbers), it is again not surprising that faculty in education often call for special general education programs and courses for education majors since existing curricula fail to meet the needs of prospective teachers.

Increasingly aware of the antipathies and limitations created by higher education's fragmented structure, many scholars are now calling for an end to disciplinary segregation and insisting that the academy look beyond the narrow blinders of the past century to explore those areas where spheres of knowledge overlap and intersect. The same call for a holistic approach to the nature of knowledge is also echoed in recent proposals for restructuring basic education and in similar studies of general education and the major within higher education's curricula. Appropriately, these proposals have generated new questions about the role of pedagogy and epistemology. How can our students experience the excitement of working on the edges of the disciplines, of discovering unexpected points of intersection? We are learning more and more, for example, about the effectiveness of collaborative learning and of federated learning communities; of the durability of active as opposed to passive learning. These pedagogical approaches not only challenge our students, they are also proving engaging for an increasingly diverse student body. As higher education begins to forge new alliances between and among disciplines, as well as between content and pedagogy, colleges of arts and sciences and education must become collaborators in this effort and thus insure that the promises of a more active and holistic approach to learning are fulfilled in both liberal arts and teacher education curricula.

A Call for Collaborative Reform

Obvious places for colleges of arts and sciences and education to begin a collaborative examination of their own and their institution's commitment to teacher education are the general education program and the major. Often, general education represents an elementary education major's only exposure to the disciplines and, therefore, is of particular importance within the teacher education curriculum. Although faculty teaching general education courses tend to view them as an entree into their particular discipline, for most students such courses represent an end rather than a beginning. As we know too well, a science major moving on to the rigors of a B.S. degree is unlikely to pick up a volume of poetry and grow intoxicated by its images and rhythms, nor is a business major likely to follow that wonderful world civilization course with another. The same can be said of those students who major in elementary or secondary education. Though in fact, elementary teachers may be called upon to explain why a rock is easier to lift when under water (the specific gravity question on the 1875 California State Board examination), their only exposure to college-level science may have been a 2-semester general education sequence in biology followed by a course in methods of teaching science.

Given the uninspired teaching that too often characterizes general education science for nonmajors, it is not surprising to learn that an elementary teacher spends an average of but 18 minutes a day on science (Johnston, Spalding, Paden, & Ziffren, 1989, p. 14), a statistic that many view as an exaggeration. The same questions about quality and appropriateness of preparation can also be raised about other disciplines as well. Can a student whose only exposure to American civilization has been a survey of American government and one of American history respond to children's queries about daily life in colonial America or explain the myth and reality of our treatment of native Americans as portrayed in art, music, literature, and history? If we are to produce teachers capable of responding to and sparking our children's curiosity about the natural world, as well as nurturing their understanding and appreciation of human achievement, their own preparation must be stimulating, inquiry oriented and in-depth.

Such preparation can become the norm if our institutions tune into the growing body of literature on general education (Gaff, 1983, for a useful survey and bibliography). Much of this writing focuses persuasively on the creation of intellectually vital content in combination with pedagogies emphasizing discovery of the essential questions of a given discipline, its methods of inquiry and ways of knowing, and its relationship to other areas of knowledge. No longer is it sufficient to provide general education students with coverage of a discipline through vapid textbooks and 50-minute lectures via a course entitled "Introduction to X." We must reach beyond the tired pedagogy of the past. A first course in sociology, for example, might include field work in the community, or a history course might focus upon the interpretation of artifacts or neglected groups as sources for enriching the texture of historical narrative. It is in this context that team-taught, paired and clustered courses, and integrated learning communities have shown great promise in assisting general education students see the relationships among disciplines, as well as begin to grasp how multiple perspectives enhance our understanding.

As colleges and universities rethink the content of their general education programs and examine new pedagogical approaches, it is important for them to keep the needs of education students at the forefront. Why not develop a cluster program on "Issues in American Education" that integrates a course in educational foundations with general education courses in American history and philosophy? Or insist that a learning community focusing on issues of gender, race, class, and ethnicity not neglect the importance of these questions for teachers, as well as include a significant number of education majors among its participants? Unfortunately, it is all too easy to forget them. At my own institution, all B.A. majors are required to take three integrative seminars, yet education majors are excluded from the seminar by virtue of their earning B.S. degrees. Clearly, we need to review this restrictive policy, especially in light of our responsibility to prepare prospective teachers for the increasingly holistic pedagogies currently being adopted by the public schools.

In its recent report, *The Liberal Art of Science*, the American Association for the Advancement of Science (1990) urges that undergraduate science be taught as a multifaceted, liberal arts discipline—with the same spirit of inquiry that motivates its best practitioners. Such advice challenges the premises underlying many of our introductory classes where science is "conveyed as a body of information to be absorbed without critical examination and without consideration of how it came to be accepted by the scientific community" (p. 28) and where laboratory hours are spent reproducing textbook experiments with predictable results. The report then goes on to tantalize us with examples of model courses and programs that have been developed at institutions across the country.

Certainly, these are the sorts of general education science programs we would wish for all our students, and their value for elementary teachers would be enormous. But while an interdisciplinary science sequence focusing on the world environment, for example, may sound wonderful in theory, in practice such a program—as with many interdisciplinary programs regardless of the disciplines involved—is difficult and costly to implement. In this case, faculty from several scientific disciplines require the time to share their expertise about environmental issues and the teaching of science, to learn about each others' fields and where they intersect with their own. They need opportunity to study, and then incorporate into their teaching, new pedagogical approaches emphasizing critical inquiry, writing, and mathematics. Laboratory experiments must be created to involve students in active research; computer software developed and evaluated to encourage students' further interaction with the issue at hand. Will the course then be team taught? Who will pay for the new lab equipment and computers?

Reports from the National Research Council (1991) and the Mathematical Sciences Education Board (1991) echo the scientists in calling for the transformation of mathematical pedagogies from ones characterized by rote learning and drill and practice to a variety of active-learning approaches. In the process, both reports insist upon the necessity of smaller classes—a statement sure to unsettle many of our institutions' fiscal administrators. The Board states most emphatically that "goals for student performance are shifting from a narrow focus on routine skills to development of broad-based mathematical power" (Mathematical Sciences Educational Board, 1991, p. 5). To achieve this transformation, and to enable prospective teachers to generate a similar transformation in their classrooms, will require new pedagogical techniques and the introduction of new technologies. If we are to educate tomorrow's teachers and citizens effectively, no longer can we turn over the responsibility for our general education programs to teaching assistants or herd students into large lecture sections. For many of our students, general education represents their only exposure to the liberal arts. That general education courses may be our elementary school teachers' only exposure to the disciplines they will eventually teach should be reason enough for collaborative reform.

Admittedly, in discussing general education one need not focus upon science, its most expensive component, or bring up yet another discipline that has the potential to require increasing resources. This, however, has been done deliberately—not only to support the rising cry about America's lack of scientific and mathematical literacy and the resultant challenge from the National Education Goals, but to make the point that the resources so essential for pedagogical and curricular transformation are not readily available at many institutions. This is especially true for those which produce the largest numbers of our nation's teachers.

With legislative cuts and reordered priorities, resources are becoming scarcer and scarcer in those former, state-owned normal schools now struggling to cast off the specter of their earlier lives and achieve the trappings of universities (a process, unfortunately, which tends to diminish these institutions' commitment to the education of teachers). Additional funding is desperately needed from state, federal, and private sources to support the development of new programs, to engage faculty in education and arts and sciences in new and collaborative pedagogies, and to replace inadequate facilities and antiquated equipment.

Many of these same concerns about general education also apply to the major. Faculty in arts and sciences and in education need to look beyond general education to their elementary and secondary education curricula and to do so with the same rigor that the Association of American Colleges (AAC) suggests for liberal arts disciplines (1991). There is no reason why the preparation of a teacher of English or history or biology should be any less comprehensive, challenging, or coherent than that of an English, history, and biology major. Just because the schools are calling for an emphasis on basic skills, must the English education curriculum suddenly have to respond by acquiring a decided emphasis on grammar and linguistics at the expense of literature and creative writing? Too often arts and sciences faculty complain that their education majors are dull and less interesting than their real majors. Why not provide prospective teachers with the same curriculum as real majors and at the same time encourage more disciplinary majors to consider a career in teaching? Although many states have reservations about extending teacher preparation programs to 5 years, there is much to be said in favor of these comprehensive programs.

At a recent conference sponsored by the Association of American Colleges on "Strengthening the Humanities Preparation of Teachers," several panelists, for the most part from private institutions, described their successful efforts in working with state departments of education to develop innovative programs for education majors. The panel stressed repeatedly that while states provide guidelines for certification, every recommendation need not be translated into a three-credit course. Because former normal schools have yet to break their ties with the departments of education under which they operated for so many decades, they frequently engage in literal interpretation of curricular guidelines. Unfortunately, the results are often incoherent and fragmented programs. Institutions can, however, work effectively within the recommendations of departments of education to create dynamic, challenging, and even daring programs such as those described in the AAC's *Those Who Can* (Johnston, 1989) or the innovative projects presented in the annual reports of Project 30 (Project 30, 1991). But reform of education majors needs to involve changes in courses contributed to the curriculum by education faculty as well as those in arts and sciences. In his stimulating book, *Liberal Education* (1991), Frederick Weaver argues convincingly for a liberal arts pedagogy in professional education courses:

> The practical orientation of teacher education certainly does not condemn it to intellectually flat conceptions of purpose. Student teachers do need to know how to prepare lesson plans and to appreciate that certain methods of teaching reading and computation are more useful than others. Nevertheless, every prescription about proper lesson-plan development and every experiment designed to test the efficacy of a particular teaching method embodies myriad assumptions about the characteristics of the subject matter or skill being taught; the nature of human cognition; the backgrounds of students; the patterns of authority in the classroom, school, and system, and the relationship between schooling and society. It is by introducing these levels of analysis that the field of education becomes an intellectually compelling field of inquiry and that training courses become true liberal education courses. This is such compelling work that it is difficult to imagine how education as a field of study could ever be considered to be narrow or dull. (p. 88)

Invigorating existing education courses is yet another area where the two colleges can collaborate in strengthening the undergraduate preparation of teachers!

Lock Haven's Master of Liberal Arts Program

In an effort to respond to some of these larger concerns about teacher education, as well as to meet the needs of local teachers and, in our own fashion, assist in the creation of a real-world toll booth, Lock Haven

University's (LHU) Colleges of Arts and Science and Education have joined forces over the past 2 years to reconfigure the University's Master of Liberal Arts degree. To create a coherent program responsive to the needs of inservice teachers, and with the potential to function as an alternative to the traditional M.Ed., a team from the two colleges worked to incorporate within the curriculum both courses and pedagogical approaches that would appeal to this target group.

Borrowing the structure of Millersville University's innovative pedagogy program (a program developed as a Project 30 initiative), Lock Haven's MLA now includes an optional, one-credit pedagogy course paired with each of the degree's three required liberal arts seminars (one each in the arts and humanities, the natural sciences, and the social sciences). There is also an expanded curriculum that includes education courses with a liberal arts focus ("History of Education," "Philosophical Issues in Education") and the option of a capstone project combining work in arts and sciences and education.

Recently, we offered our first seminar and paired pedagogy course. "Environment and History" enrolled 20 students, both graduates and undergraduates. Five inservice teachers also registered for the pedagogy course. Here they explored the pedagogy of the discipline(s) in question as well as developed strategies for infusing the content of the liberal arts seminar into their own classrooms. Recently the two faculty members involved in the paired courses (one from education, the other from history) and one of their students, a teacher with 33 years of service at a local high school, met with LHU's graduate council to describe their experiences.

The seminar, led by the historian with the education faculty member in participatory attendance, examined the relationship of environmental causation to the development of societies and civilizations. Through the use of specific case studies, students examined aspects of environmentally related phenomena throughout history: Judeo-Christian environmental philosophy; the role of disease in history; European expansion and its impact on ecology; biological consequences of the discovery of the New World; deforestation in South America; even the Johnstown, Pennsylvania, flood of 1889. In the pedagogy course (led by the faculty member from education but also actively attended by the historian), students not only analyzed the faculty member's approach to teaching history in general and the seminar in particular, but also studied ways in which the content of the seminar could be taught in elementary and secondary schools. Discussions and activities in the pedagogy course were diverse and far ranging; they included sessions on dinosaurs and storytelling; examination of a variety of software and films; participation in a demonstration of a microscale scientific laboratory; exploration of the use of debates and mock elections as well as how to develop oral history projects; visits to an environmental center; and examination of historical artifacts as springboards for exploring connections between history and the environment.

The local historical society even stayed open until 10:00 PM one night for their benefit.

The enthusiasm of the participating high school teacher was incredibly contagious! She assured us that only on class night did she remain awake past 9:00 PM, and that she frequently lingered with faculty and students until 10:30 PM. Not only had she become more sensitive to environmental history as a result of the class, but she had incorporated much of the content into her own teaching, and had even revamped her upcoming sabbatical to explore some environmental issues on her own!

While we are clearly pleased with our revitalized MLA, our degree has not been without controversy. School administrators view it as a program that will fail to fix the young teachers we send them, and needless to say, they have considerable influence in guiding teachers into appropriate programs. Unlike an M.Ed., the content of which is known to public school personnel, the courses making up an MLA program (individualized almost by definition of the degree) may seem alien and out of place. A personnel administrator knows how to converse with a candidate about a course in educational statistics; a course in Asian art on a candidate's transcript may leave that same administrator speechless. Our program is also competing for students with institutions from outside our region and state who offer degrees through weekend courses and videocassettes—classes and degrees that are frequently of questionable quality, yet they are programs that school districts are willing to support. When a teacher has limited time for continuing study, there is little doubt which program will be selected. Yes, there is a downside to innovation.

Conclusion

From the perspective of a dean of arts and science, collaboration with a college of education offers challenging and exciting opportunities—not only for students, but for faculty as well. While any new venture is not without risk, certainly we, like young Milo, will emerge stronger and energized by our efforts. So too will all our students, especially those destined to accompany a new generation of children and young adults through the toll booth.

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V

Professional Development Schools and Teacher Education: Policies, Problems, and Possibilities

Dale L. Lange

Introduction

The professional development school is both a recent concept in teacher development in the United States (Holmes Group, 1986, 1990) as well as a historical artifact. The history is embedded in the tension between public preK-12 and higher education in the several structures around teacher education, including school-university partnerships and university laboratory schools. Currently, the context of professional development schools is infected with negative rhetoric toward professional schools of education, teacher training, and the innumerable, continuing, conflicting recommendations for reform. While situating professional development schools in that history and context, this essay examines the major concepts, principles, and issues connected to such schools as one major strategy in the restructuring of teacher education within the framework of a critical analysis of the problems and possibilities.

Background: Laboratory and Portal Schools

This background situates the concept of professional development schools and puts it into perspective. Historically, a professional development school is linked to the Deweyian concept of university laboratory school, an analogy to the physics or biology laboratory. In other words, the laboratory school has been considered as the pedagogical laboratory or that place in university schools of education where the relationship of theory to practice and practice to theory could be discussed, displayed, examined, critiqued, and evaluated with the intent of adding to and modifying already existing knowledge.[1] Inquiry into the process of education in school was the expectation for this laboratory. That inquiry included not only the process and product of teaching and learning, but also the development of those who were preparing themselves for the teaching profession.

The growth of laboratory schools in the period 1920-1940 (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990) stemmed from the pressure put on student teaching, particularly on secondary education teacher education programs from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE), and their predecessors. Yet, in spite of this growth and a more attentive stance regarding the development of teachers, laboratory schools did not meet original expectations. Their decline in the 1960s happened for two basic reasons: (1) unable to guarantee that the laboratory school could emulate the classrooms of the public schools, they lost the student teaching function to public education, and (2) research expectations remained unfulfilled because that important function had not been given high visibility and top priority (Stallings & Kowalski, 1990; Winitzky, Stoddart, & O'Keefe, 1992).

A short-lived entity (late 1960s to 1980 approximately), the portal school replaced the dying laboratory schools to some extent. As regular public schools, the portal schools were expected to fulfill several goals: they provided self-renewal for teachers within the school system to make education relevant; they served to interface with teacher development programs in universities on effective teaching competencies and innovative practices; and, they implemented, tested, and disseminated the results of curricular innovation. These schools were a part of a collaborative of teachers and administrators from schools, university administration, college faculty, community, unions, and the like, which planned, developed, implemented, and evaluated programs to meet collaborative goals. Most important to initial teacher development, and this discussion in particular, portal schools allowed teacher development to occur in a realistic setting where teachers, future teachers, and professors could examine and perfect their teaching abilities. However, in much shorter time, and probably for the same reason, namely lack of systematic assessment of programs and lack of a research plan, the portal schools too faded from sight.

Once Again, School and Teacher Development Reform[2]

In order to situate professional development schools in the current framework of debate and discussion about schooling and teacher development, it is important to examine a brief overview of educational reform since the 1960s. In the 1980s and 1990s, restructuring of schools and teacher development is certainly not a new idea. Earlier, for example, the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (Diekoff, 1965) was a defensive response to the failure of

American education in competition with Soviet education, resulting from the launching of the *Sputnik* space vehicle in 1957. A major critic of education at that time, Conant (1961, 1963, & 1967) continued the negative posture toward education through exhaustive analysis and specific recommendations to improve education in urban schools, the impoverished quality of secondary education in mathematics, sciences, foreign languages, social sciences, and English in U.S. schools, and teacher education. In rereading Conant's 1963 book, many of the recommendations on teacher education (knowledge base, development of a clinical faculty, practical experience for professors of education, 5-year programs) sound very current. But, the critique does not end here. In the period of the 1970s, both during and after the Vietnam War, American education was again assailed as having failed.

In the 1980s, a new cycle of pessimistic commentary on American education was to begin and continue into the 1990s, a cycle that sees teachers and teacher education as the problem, and not part of the solution. In 1983, a presidential commission released a stinging report of schooling, *A Nation at Risk* (U.S. Department of Education & National Commission on Excellence, 1983) that indicated that our culture was in danger of losing its international status because its schools had deteriorated precipitously. In the resulting 10 years, the efforts in current educational reform take three directions: school curriculum reform, school restructuring, and the reconstruction of teacher education.

Curriculum

Responses to the 1980 and 1990 reform agenda are wide and varied; they vacillate among conservative and progressive voices around curricular issues. Even before the *A Nation at Risk* was generated, Adler (1982) had developed "The Paideia Proposal," which stated a similar agenda for all children. It was based on the conservation of Western thought and tradition through a liberal arts tradition. Another curriculum reform proposal of this period is found in the need for children and youth to be culturally literate. Hirsch (1987) established a curricular agenda, which, like that of Adler, approaches knowledge through the lens of the Western world and American culture, leaving aside the contributions of other societies and places to a broader world culture. While these are only examples of the kind of curricular propositions being made during this period, they focus on the important and major themes of school reform; i.e., knowledge of underlying cultural traditions and excellence or higher standards, metaphors for tougher requirements, elimination of elective courses, focus on mathematics and sciences, more homework, testing, teacher accountability, longer schools days, and consideration of year-round school (Passow, 1987).

A more progressive agenda in school reform recognizes the curriculum as a constant struggle for values and forms of knowledge. Based to some degree on the works of Dewey (1944), Freire (1973), and others, this project directs curriculum toward democratic principles and emancipation. Its mandate is found in the unity of reflection and action within a social, economic, and political context. It allows individuals and groups to contemplate and act upon society for purposes of responding to societal inequities; it works for fairness, justice, and emancipation for all persons regardless of race, creed, age, gender, sexual preference, and social class. The intent of this agenda is the development of a truly democratic society and the betterment of the human condition (Freire, 1970, 1973, 1985; Freire & Faundez, 1989; Giroux, 1988; and, McLaren, 1989, among many others). This progressive agenda is hardly known and even less publicly discussed because of its liberal political overtones and conflict with the predominant conservative curricular agenda.

The curricular aspect of school reformulation contributes directly to the discussion of professional development schools to follow. It speaks directly to the awareness, knowledge, and understanding that teachers must possess or develop in the highly value-laden, political context of the school curriculum. Teachers cannot function in schools without recognizing this aspect. A closer and extended connection with more careful mentoring in professional development schools will provide interns with an appreciation of curricular politics and the struggle over whose knowledge is appropriate.

School Restructuring

A second major education reform effort is the refashioning of schools themselves. Certainly, *A Nation at Risk* (U.S. Department of Education, 1983) jolted American educators to look at schools, what they were and were not accomplishing. Some different visions, structures, and relationships began to emerge and are emerging. These visions are sampled here.

One vision involves a network of schools that transforms itself from a set of principles. In *Horace's Compromise,* Sizer (1984) explored the need for school transformation as a result of a significant study of schools in the United States. The exploration uncovered five imperatives for better schools, which Sizer has incorporated into a growing network of Essential Schools. Those imperatives involve flexibility for teachers and students to teach and to learn, student exhibition of mastery of their work, appropriate incentives for teachers and learners, focused learning, and a simple structure.

Another vision of transformation, outcome-based education (OBE), is more specifically based on what students know, can do, and value. This direction allows students to demonstrate their knowledge and its application rather than focusing on the amount of time spent in a classroom. In Minnesota, for example, the State Board of Education has indicated that graduation from secondary schools in the future will be based on knowledge and abilities that will not be assessed by time in place, but by a set of interdisciplinary tasks (Minnesota Department of Education, 1992).

A third vision of reform involves the changing nature of our population and the requirements for desegregation. Magnet schools (Estes, Levine, & Waldrip, 1990) and their off-shoots have become an important option in school restructuring and balancing school populations. In concept, magnet schools are open to any students within a district. They are usually organized around subject matter themes such as mathematics and sciences, the arts, careers, or technology for elementary, as well as secondary school students. These schools may be nonselective where students choose to attend from their own interest and motivation. One of their major features is a focus on curriculum and instructional innovation.

A fourth and prescient position on restructuring is taken by those who advocate school reform through the application of a competitive business position toward it. Those schools that become competitive will survive and continue to exist; those that lose are not competitive, cannot become so, and thus, fail. One aspect of this movement started in Minnesota with the Post-Secondary Options Act (1990). The legislation gave secondary school students the option to attend courses given by local technical and community colleges, state universities, and the University of Minnesota, to be supported by the school funding formula that is transferred to the college if a course is actually taken, and to be given college credit for the work completed. Another form of competitive restructuring is found in the Minnesota Open Enrollment Act (Enrollment Options, 1990) that theoretically allows students to choose whichever school they desire to attend. Again, the monetary support follows the student. The major reason behind both of these options is that the resulting competition among schools to keep their own students through restructuring will help them provide higher quality educational programs, resulting in higher student achievement.

A final school reform undertaking comes from the federal government in partnership with private business through the New American Schools Corporation (1991). This partnership intends to bring innovation into American education through the creation of new schools. These schools will result from a variety of synergies among divergent partners or consortia (city governments, universities, school districts, private corporations, businesses), which will result in new schools for the second millennium. At the point of writing this piece, just 11 of some 600 proposal have been funded. These New American Schools will be important to watch because they could say much about the future of schooling in the United States.

This context is important to the concept of professional development schools because it suggests that serious attempts to change schools are taking place. Certainly, not without major flaws and advantages, these reforms need discussion, critique, exemplification, incorporation, and evaluation. One place for both pre- and inservice teachers to experience such careful and critical examination is within the professional development school context.

It is this very environment of school change that must be woven into teacher development to engender change in the preparation of teachers as well. Next, in displaying the background on professional development schools, we will look at several examples of how teacher development is restructuring.

Teacher Development

As with school renewal, the restructuring of teacher education is a long-term process. This activity is taking its direction from both internal and external forces. There are several statements from a variety of higher education coalitions (Holmes 1986, 1990; Project 30, n.d.; and, the Renaissance Group, 1992) as examples of internal change forces. External pressures for change are exemplified in the Carnegie Forum (1986), the National Board for Professional Testing Standards (1991), and the project on assessment of teachers and teaching at Educational Testing Services, PRAXIS (1991). It is import to recognize that, in the milieu of educational renewal in this country, teacher preparation programs in colleges and universities have been considered part of the educational problem and not part of the solution. In spite of this negative attitude on the part of some academics, business and industry people, and the general public, colleges and universities have organized around confederations of ideas that represent different constituencies in teacher preparation (large research universities, state universities, and programs with a strong interest in the liberal arts), but which have a similar, singular goal, that of the preparation of quality teachers for schools in the United States. In a different orientation to teacher education renewal, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards and the Educational Testing Service are concentrating on assessment as their specific contribution in this area. Finally, teacher licensure boards have become very prominent participants in the restructuring of teacher education. Examples of these three orientations to teacher education restructuring are given below.

In the first orientation, namely the different consortia of colleges and universities, three examples are presented. One of the major consortia is that of the Holmes Group (1986), an assemblage of major research universities in the country. In abbreviated form, its agenda for the restructuring of teacher development addresses five basic points: an intellectually solid program; awareness of differences and rewards for teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions; appropriate standards for entry to the profession; connections to schools; and, a work climate that befits professionals. In addition, the Holmes Group (1990) has indicated the importance of the association of teacher development with professional development schools. Such schools bring initial and continuing teacher development together in schools where professorial staff and local school staff work together to meet the needs of those preparing to teach, recognized professionals in-service, and university faculty. In this process, the restructured school is a joint effort of the faculties of the public school and the university school of education. It is based on their collaboration on initial teacher preparation and their joint research efforts in answering particular curricular and instructional questions.

On a somewhat different agenda, the Renaissance Group (1992), a group of state universities, formerly normal schools and teacher education colleges, operates on 12 principles that direct teacher development as an all-campus, shared, and integrated responsibility throughout the students' stay on campus. It is associated with appropriate state standards, rigorous learning opportunities in general, subject matter, and professional preparation; diversity; extensive clinical experiences; quality faculty; continuing professional development; and, adequate support. A combination of colleges and universities with a liberal arts orientation to teacher development, Project 30 (n.d.) has announced agreement on three basic aims: increase the competence and authority of teachers; provide substantive and imaginative development of students in schools; and, strengthen the teaching profession.

A second orientation to teacher education reconfiguration is related to assessment of teaching knowledge and capabilities. The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1991) is a direct outgrowth of the Carnegie Forum report (1986). It is developing a voluntary, advanced, national system of licensure for teachers through the development of standards and authentic assessments. The work of this Board is based on several propositions that indicate that teachers are committed to student learning, know the content to be taught and how to teach, are responsible for managing learning, learn systematically from experience, and are members of learning communities. It is upon these propositions that an assessment system is currently being built by the Board. This evaluation system is expected to be multifaceted; it will be oriented mainly toward authentic assessment of pedagogical knowledge and competence in a subject field. Several subject area evaluations are currently being readied for implementation in 1993 with a more or less full system of assessments in subject areas to be completed by 1997. The Educational Testing Service with its PRAXIS series of tests (ETS, 1991) for initial licensure is working toward the same goal, but at a different level. Any system of assessments, whether for general pedagogy, content knowledge, or specific field pedagogy, will become the standards toward which all teacher development programs will strive. We must all watch these developments with great care, concern, and active participation because teacher development programs can be determined and driven by such systems. In that light, teacher development programs in institutions of higher education cannot become part of the solution to educational problems because solutions are controlled by outside forces, particularly those who have developed assessment systems.

The third orientation to teacher education reformulation is in the creation of state licensure boards. At last count, there were more than 30 states with such boards. In Minnesota, for example, the Minnesota Board of Teaching is responsible for the rule making associated with teacher development and the approval of all higher education generated programs for teacher development. Constituted of a majority of teachers, its influence is enormous. For example, it has recently been successful in recommending legislation toward the establishment of year-long teaching internships as part of any program for teacher development in Minnesota (Education Funding, 1992). Although modified somewhat by the legislature to study pilot programs before full implementation, it is clear that such an internship will have major impact on teacher development in terms of cost and funding of programs, numbers of teacher candidates, and relationship of college/university to schools. When implemented fully in the year 2000, the influence of the Board will have dramatically altered teacher education in Minnesota. Teacher licensure boards in other states are considering similar kinds of approaches and will be looking directly at the Board of Teaching's experiment in Minnesota for guidance.

Each of the examples in these contexts, without surveying the entire country for similar patterns, provides a vision of how teacher development is restructuring: consortia of institutions of higher education are redirecting their efforts toward quality preparation of teachers, including the use of professional development schools; teacher standards for both initial and advanced licensure are being developed through new assessments; and, finally, state licensure boards, composed largely of teachers, are setting policy on teacher development across the country. These efforts in relation to curriculum reform and schools restructuring within the schools set the full context for the consideration of professional development schools.

Professional Development Schools: What Are We Talking About? Definitions and Principles as Policies

Like most everything in life and in education, a strict definition of professional development schools is not possible since they are largely defined by the context in which they are established. Thus, there are several definitions; the most important ones will be dealt with here.

Holmes Group: Professional Development School

Since much of the currrent discussion in the literature centers around the concept of professional development schools as defined by the Holmes Group (1986, 1990; Ashton, 1992; Soltis, 1987), that definition will be treated first. The definition is relatively clear: "a school for the development of novice professionals, for continuing development of experienced professionals, and *for the research and development of the teaching profession*" (Holmes Group, 1990, p. 7; italics from the original). Although simple, the definition is surrounded by a set of six principles that clarify the definition. The first two are necessarily intertwined: a learning community (Principle 2), where teachers and students work together to understand and develop their culture (Principle 1), creates an atmosphere where knowledge has a purpose. In this context, learning is active, participatory, collaborative, and builds on diversity. This last concept (Principle 3), diversity, demonstrates a major long-term commitment to social justice and democracy, giving all learners a chance to succeed, regardless of class, color, gender, ethnic background, sexual preference, or religion. In addition to the collaborative learning of students and teachers, another confederation of teachers, administrators, and teacher educators promotes continuing learning as well (Principle 4). This arrangement indicates a lifelong professional commitment to inquiry in a partnership that creates a different school atmosphere, namely reflection and research on the evolving understanding and practice of teaching and learning (Principle 5). In order that the first five principles can be accomplished, a new partnership needs to be constructed where management, leadership, and faculty, including the university partners, create new working conditions, teaching arrangements, curriculum, schedule, and decision-making processes (Principle 6). It is important to remember here that the six-principle context in which this definition of professional development schools resides is a response of the research universities in this country to the restructuring of both schools and teacher development; the assumption is that one cannot occur without the other. In this regard, both the definition and the principles fit into the larger context of reform discussed above.[3]

American Federation of Teachers (AFT): Professional Practice School

A second definition of a professional development school is that from the American Federation of Teachers, Exxon-funded, professional practice school[4] project (Levine, 1988b). It has three parts: The intent of the professional practice school is to: "support student success; provide a professional induction program for new teachers; and, support systematic inquiry directed toward the improvement of practice." The conceptualization is not much different from that of the Holmes Group. Yet, there are major distinctions in concept. One major difference is that students are directly mentioned in the definition. This conceptualization strikes a slightly different chord, indicating that students are the first priority in a professional practice school. On the surface, at least, the Holmes Group definition appears to be targeted toward higher education and teacher development. Further, the AFT definition offers more direct language by clearly stating that, in addition to student success, the professional practice school provides a specific program for teachers, that of induction, and "research directed at the continuous improvement of practice" (Levine, 1988a). Here, professional practice includes reflection, experimentation, and inquiry (Levine & Gendler, 1988). Another measure of the focused nature of the professional practice school concept is the attention to accountability by which implementation of professional practice can be judged. (Darling-Hammond, 1988; Houston, 1988). It can be assumed that the direct flavor of this interpretation comes from the practical and immediate concerns of a teacher's union.

Not unlike the Holmes Group declaration on professional development schools, the professional practice school operates on a set of reasoned principles. As indicated in the definition, the primary goal is to "support student academic and social learning" (Principle 1). In this context, it is assumed that learning is a very active process (Principle 2). This principle functions according to the individual, the nature of the learning, and it context (physical space, time, teacher, curriculum, goals, tasks, interaction with teachers and others). Professional practice in this milieu is "knowledge-based, reflective, and inquiring" (Principle 3). In this regard, learning is not a linear process, but rather is based on what we know about individuals, the conditions that support learning, and specific content pedagogical knowledge and practice. Finally, the professional practice school is obligated to develop diversity and demonstrate accountability in achieving its goals for students and for developing professionals (Principle 4). Although more focused, these principles are similar to those of the Holmes Group professional development schools. Both orientations and sets of principles seem to be headed in a similar direction,[5] namely better education for children and professional, lifelong development for teachers. They differ according to the nature of the proposer. The Holmes Group reflects the needs of higher education, while the American Federation of Teachers represents the needs, interest, and desires of a teachers union.

Other Definitions

The conceptualizations of the Holmes Group and the American Federation of Teachers around professional development[6] schools are those most extensive ones. There are others, which are treated here but briefly.

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. In the same way that the Holmes Group and AFT situate professional development schools in an environment where schools and teacher development are in a symbiotic relationship, working together on change, the plan suggested by the Carnegie Forum also arrives at this same understanding. One of the major recommendations of the Carnegie Forum report (1986, p. 55) is the development of a curriculum for teacher development that incorporates a knowledge base and includes "internships and residencies in schools." It is in these sites or schools that a connection among the schools, teacher development, and the liberal arts and sciences can be made. The report calls for the use of clinical schools which have "an analogous role to teaching hospitals." Here, there is little elaboration

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of concept or principles in the same way that the Holmes Group and AFT have detailed their proposals for professional development schools. While the medical analogy used by the Carnegie Forum report is initially useful in envisioning the kinds of linkages needed between the arts and sciences and education in the context of the real world of schooling, it may not be the most appropriate analogy for education since it suggests that students are sick, in hospital, in deficit, and can be repaired; those who repair them are teachers in intern practice. A more appropriate metaphor for education employing emphasis on development, as in professional development schools, presents a more suitable environment for education and indicates a climate for personal and intellectual growth and collaborative evolution of programs, curriculum, and instruction in which students, interns, teachers, support personnel, and the faculty from arts and sciences participate. While it is not clear that the term, professional development school, is the most appropriate phrase containing the appropriate metaphor, it is certainly more representative of what is needed than teaching hospital.[7] The search for a metaphor continues.

Goodlad: Teachers for Our Nation's Schools. For Goodlad (1990), the metaphor expands beyond development to that of partnership. He acknowledges that the concepts of professional development and practice of the Holmes Group and the AFT dovetail with an expanding notion of partnership (p. 281) as in his own National Network for Educational Renewal (see particularly, pp. 407-312). From his perspective, many of the major issues needed to establish these structures of development, practice, and partnership have not yet been worked out. He suggests that much of this work is yet in an "embryonic stage."

In the context of several of the 19 postulates as discussed in detail,[8] Goodlad's partnership ideas build on an acceptance of the development school[9] to include a broader definition of partnership. The term continues to include cooperation and collaboration between and among the schools themselves, schools of education or centers of pedagogy,[10] and the faculty of the arts and sciences. However, rather than in a conceptual or definitional sense, Goodlad expands the term by example. His suggested partnership schools are associated with the pedagogical center and jointly operated by the pedagogical center and school districts. They may serve exclusively as schools where internships take place, but are not the only schools where a variety of clinical experiences, including observations, are conducted. Yet, the example of collaboration in conceptual development of the partnership that Goodlad develops in the example of the ficticious Northern State University provides insight into what partnership really means. It is a collaborative vision where funding is shared between the center and the districts; there is cooperative control over the general education, subject matter, and foundational requirements for preparing teachers; there is collaborative agreement on a plan where field and actual teaching experiences bring theory and practice together, guaranteeing student cohorts the necessary internship; and, faculties in schools, arts and sciences, and education work jointly on the renewal of schools. There is a further aspect of collaboration that characterizes the Goodlad effort, a more national focus on collaboration, namely, his Center for Educational Renewal. Such an effort suggests that collaboration and cooperation on teacher education is required on a broader scale, in addition to the local one, in order that both schools and teacher development be renewed.

In characterizing these four definitional examples of professional development, it appears to this writer that they each represent the groups in which they were developed. The Holmes Group understanding of professional development schools comes from the need of research universities to focus on research. As a result, there appear to be more rhetoric of a top-down nature and orientation to the needs of research universities than for schools. On the other hand, the AFT definition of professional practice schools represents more practical, bottom-up language and vision than that of the Holmes Group, largely because of its orientation to immediate accountability. The Carnegie Forum report presents an aloof and theoretically antiseptic picture of clinical schools, probably because most of the individuals developing the report deal regularly with policy issues more than their practical application. The Goodlad vision derives from actual work on the development of partnerships in teacher education and school renewal, thus its collaborative partnership orientation.

Problems and Possibilities: Possibilities and Problems

With the context of school and teacher education reformulation in mind, as well as the display of conceptualizations and principles of professional development schools, it is important to examine the several problems that accompany their establishment. In this same light, it is appropriate to indicate how professional development schools contribute to the quality preparation of teachers for the next generations. For almost any problem, there can be a solution, and each possibility possesses its problematic aspects. To organize this section of the essay, categories for discussion have been derived from the questions asked by Yinger and Hendricks (1990) on school-university partnerships in their review of Holmes Group reforms.[11] Other categories will be added as needed. These categories, their organization, and recommendations should not be considered as direct answers to the questions that Yinger and Hendricks pose. However, they are intended to generate other answers to these important questions and continue the dialog they begin.

Basic Definition: Professional Development Schools

Problem. The four definitions of professional development/practice schools we have examined are incomplete. While they emphasize development and practice of preparing teachers within the framework of collaboration with university and school faculty and administration for the purpose of improving both the schools and teacher development, the definitions do not clearly include parents and students as players in the collaboration. Since laboratory schools on campus and portal or lighthouse schools have basically passed from view in teacher development, it is important to situate the preparation of teachers in real settings. It is also important that professional development and/or practice succeed as a part of the restructuring of teacher education. All involved in the creation of these schools should be as equal as partners can be.

Possibility. The basic definition of professional development schools should include parents and students, resolving a relatively simple conceptual problem. Even though the expansion of the collaborative to include two other partners may complicate the collaboration with more players and differing agendas, the involvement of student and parental voices need to be heard in the debates on the improvement of schools and teacher development. If the reforms in both areas are to be accepted by our society, then students and parents will need to be convinced, participating advocates.[12] Once parents, students, teachers, administrators, and teacher educators unite behind reform, their strong, united biases cannot be ignored. The development of such collaborative relationships is the clue to the success of professional development schools.

Developing Collaborative Relationships

Problem. There are many factors which contribute to the development or lack thereof of collaborative relationships like professional development schools. Only two major issues can be treated here. However, it may not be the extent of the problems, but the processes by which they are resolved that is crucial. The two factors discussed here are the following: (1) establishment of trust for all partners and (2) the system of merit reward for college/university faculty members. Both factors are sharply delineated to make a point and certainly to not apply to all persons in all situations. However, these are two topics that seem to arise immediately in discussions of professional development schools.

The difficulty in creating professional development schools comes mainly because the players in this new context have largely not worked closely together. In general, schools of education have only given teachers in public education the opportunity to supervise a student teacher; public schools use professors of education as consultants, but rarely want professors in classrooms; students are not experienced enough to be able to participate; parents, regardless of status, sex, or race are seen as not interested enough in schooling to participate in either school restructuring or teacher development; and, potential local business partners are suspect because they might be driving a particular agenda. It is clear that such assumptions lead to suspicions when people are asked to collaborate. Thus, the development of trust is a major factor for all parties involved in establishing professional development schools.

A second major issue in creating professional development schools is the application of the college/university reward system to faculty functioning. In research colleges/universities and increasingly in other institutions of higher education, it is the feeling of the faculty that more emphasis is given to publishing and presentations at major conferences than is given to teaching and service in rewarding faculty efforts. This situation creates a situation where faculty work separately and compete with each other for available rewards. Such competition is antithetical to that of the cooperation and collaboration necessary to make professional development schools successful.

Possibilities. There are strategies to influence the establisment of trust and accommodate faculty concern for appropriate rewards for working in professional development schools. Of course, key to each is a willingness to let the strategies work. And, of course, the strategies are only examples.

In the experiences where collaboration in school/university partnerships have taken place, process has helped establish trust and working relationships among partners. Rushcamp and Roehler (1992) discuss six characteristics of the relations among partners that helped all work toward change in a professional development school: (1) power relationships were allowed to shift toward those who participated in discussion rather than the discussion being dominated by those in power; such shifts require nurturing of individuals to continue their empowerment; (2) need, direction, and speed of change in curriculum and schedule evolved from the school and the community rather than from top-down, theoretical considerations of the academy; (3) student diversity, a family-like atmosphere, and a tradition of reflective inquiry were honored as particular stengths; (4) continued growth was expected of students, teachers, and collaborators; (5) all participants worked to maintain a balance between support and challenge; in other words, challenges to take risks require support even when success is apparent; and (6) all collaborators recognized and embraced the complexities of learning and teaching. This description allows an open, reflective, caring atmosphere where risk, diversity, and challenge are supported and rewarded, a different atmosphere from some college classrooms.

In another vision of collaborative development, one more intellectualized, Dixon & Ishler (1992) also discuss six stages in the collaboration and change process, providing a somewhat different picture. Those stages are as follows: (1) formation or definition of purpose for the collaboration and the declaration of the importance of parity among partners; (2) conceptualization or clarification of mission, objectives, roles, and responsibilities of partners and institutions; (3) development or establishment of formal communication and identification and clarification of policy and direction for professional development schools; (4) implementation or the actual operationalization of the plan; (5) evaluation, and (6) termination/reformation. In the case of the latter two, these stages allow for evaluation of the collaboration with decisions to be made on termination or continuance and reformulation of a professional development school. This process is more systems approach oriented, making it feel more objective, aloof, and linear (see Mahlios & Carpenter, 1982, as another example of such an approach).

These two examples demonstrate snapshots of programs in operation. They are not perfect; they have not fully succeeded in developing trust. But they have faced that issue openly, recognizing success and further opportunities that can be taken to continue the growth of the relationships. No positive human relationship is developed instantaneously; professional development schools, as examples of relationship, are no different. As the examples indicate, they take honesty, openness, care, and time to develop.

Concerning faculty merit for teaching, research, and service, the system is not monolithic; it can be manipulated positively to support the work of faculty. Certainly it was intended for that purpose. A couple of the following possibilities should be examined within a school/university collaboration. First, a faculty member who is willing to work in a professional development school context should state goals for this kind of work. Those goals should be negotiated with a director, department chair, or dean in advance of the commitment. These negotiations should indicate what is to be achieved, when and how those achievements are to be realized, how they will be evaluated, and how they will count in assigning merit. If the college or university is already committed to partnership arrangements, then negotiations between faculty member and administrator should be relatively easy. Second, the professional development school contains opportunities for teaching a course in the school curriculum or courses relating to the development of teaching, both on site, as well as a variety of opportunities for collaborative research with teachers, and service to the community. It is a matter of deciding how to focus the use of time within the framework of faculty responsibilities and the opportunities at hand. Finally, both college/university faculty and administration can view the allocation of effort in professional development schools as temporary, a negotiated element, limited to a particular time frame and focus. Faculty only need to be creative in their use of this opportunity; the system will respond.

Merging Teacher Development (Pre- and Inservice) and School Reformulation

Problem. The central and key purpose of the professional development school is to bring together teacher development (usually thought of as pre- and inservice levels, separately conceived) and the reformulation of schools. Because of the collaborative nature of professional development schools, the distinctions between initial and continuing teacher development tend to blur. What effectuates change in initial teacher development can actualize change in experienced teachers. Such bluring occurs specifically in collaborative clinical settings.

Since many aspects of school reformulation could be treated in this merger, it is necessary to limit consideration for purposes of exemplification. Two critical aspects of school reformulation immediately come to mind: multicultural (Banks, 1988) and outcome-based education (Minnesota Department of Education, 1992). Both factors are crucial to the ultimate success of our schools and the continuance of our culture. First, will students learn to respect the contributions of individuals of different colors, races, sexes, sexual preferences, and religions to our culture? And, second, what is it that students need to know, be able to do, and value as citizens in the next generations? Since these are complicated matters, no particular formulae are intended as answers to these questions. Since these are pervasive questions, are they not appropriate for initially developing and experienced teachers to work on together in a collaborative manner?

Possibilities. In order to discuss the possiblities in this category, certain assumptions have to be made, namely the following: partners have formed an initial school/university collaboration through processes already explained; goals, objectives, roles, and responsibilities of the professional development school have been agreed to and are functioning, including initial and continuing teacher development; and funding for the collaboration has been secured. In this context, pre- and inservice teacher development come together in several possibilites. Two important ones emerge: an internship and the mentoring process. These possibilities can also merge into one.

In a description of a 13-year experience with a full-year internship, Corcoran & Andrew (1988) display how a jointly developed internship curriculum contributes to the development of both pre- and inservice teachers. Preconditions for the internship include careful choice of intern supervisor with appropriate rewards, matching of intern or cohort of interns with sites, and university support. The major ingredient in the success of the program is the internship curriculum which consists of immersion into all of the activities in which a teacher is involved; adjustment to planning, classroom control, grading; expansion into different ability, new and different aspects of the curriculum, and a broader set of teacher strategies; analysis or a time for reflecting on the complexities and difficulties of teaching; and autonomy or desire to function independently of the classroom teacher, yet recognizing that much is yet to be learned.

Mentoring, as described by Cunningham & Shillington (1989), fits into the the internship weekly seminar and daily opportunities for classroom teacher and intern to function as a team as detailed by Corcoran and Andrew (1988). Mentoring is both a group and individual process whereby a cohort of pre- and inservice teachers receive support and commitment from and to each other as a cohort, as well as in collegial one-on-one relationships. The relationships developed allow for teams and individuals to use personalized learning, blend direct instruction and practical experience, model and evaluate classroom instruction and behavior, and provide reflective experiences and personal feedback. This climate allows the blending of pre- and inservice teacher development because the relationships developed allow for input and feedback to be a continual process from which participants learn from each other.

In this milieu where teacher development is taking place, students are also learning. Within the content to be taught, there is room for deliberation, discussion, conflict, and resolution over curricular issues since students are learning both content and process. If those working in and with the internship and mentoring modes can take the risk, these processes can take place within the framework of the professional development school on a daily basis. Two eminent and acutely prominent curricular issues could be collaborative projects with which everyone in the school is associated, namely multicultural education and outcome-based education. It seems that the process of mentoring and the internship within the context of the professional development school could be the means by which this common agenda is worked out. The result can be clearer indication of what students should know and be able to do within a framework of respect and honor for diversity.

Finding the Resources

Problem. As part of clinical experiences in schools of education, professional development schools require more resources than the normal student teaching experience. If there is to be a closer association of public schools and schools of education in the preparation of initially licensed teachers, in the development of already licensed teachers, and joint collaboration in the improvement of both programs, then resources for such collaborations will obviously need to improve beyond the traditional pittance paid to cooperating teachers.[13] Without more monetary support and reallocated personnel effort, professional development schools will not succeed, like their predecessors. Financial and effort support are the key elements to eventual success of professional development schools.

Possibilities. There are no easy or single solutions to the cost of establishing professional development schools. Instead, there are multiple ones that may need to be applied simultaneously. Let's look at several:

- University presidents, college deans, and school superintendents and principals need to determine the significance of professional development schools within each of their levels and systems. Once the priority for professional development schools has been established, resources can be allocated to them. Those resources include both money and effort. In terms of relative ease, money will be easier to allocate than effort. In schools of education, the resistance to the reallocation of effort will be accompanied by voices that enunciate some of the following difficulties: "I see no reason to support professional development schools because of the high quality of our current programs"; "I am already too busy with the current program"; "we are already too stretched to take on another project"; "I don't want to change my research agenda to this one"; and "It isn't in my job description to work with professional development schools." Collaborative leadership from program heads, department chairs, deans, and from among faculty, as well as creative use of and some change in the reward system, can be effective strategies in reallocating effort in higher education. Easier said than done! Similar kinds of leadership are necessary from within the schools. Thus, two sources of support for professional schools come from college/ university schools of education and local schools in the form of direct monetary support and reallocation of effort.

- Another source of support could be state legislatures and governors, particularly since professional development schools assist the restructuring of both public schools and teacher development. In this light, professional development schools provide opportunity for educational reform, a motive shared by all legislators and governors who aspire to be the education legislator or governor. This path to resources for professional development schools requires consonance of a variety of groups on their importance, goals, and accomplishments. Obvious partners in such collaboration are public schools, colleges/universities, business partners, including state groups of parents, students, principals, superintendents, teacher educators, liberal arts, science, and math professors, and anyone else who finds such sponsorship crucial. Close cooperation should be sought from state boards of education, licensure boards, legislators, and teacher unions. Although requiring great effort, such cooperation demonstrates that an important coalition is interested in seeking solutions to educational problems. Certainly, some of the leadership for this political effort should come from higher education. Although somewhat risky, this effort is a proactive activity in a climate that is generally hostile toward education, but also one which works toward the resolution of a major societal and cultural concern, the education of our children and youth, and the development of teachers for that purpose.

- Another source of support could come from local school/university business partnerships. Working together, the public schools and colleges/universities should request collaboration with the private sector to accomplish specific goals within the professional development school. Since the private sector has an important stake in educational reform, it should be asked to participate in it. One important goal to the professional development school is open communication among partners. Responding to this goal, the private sector could provide resources in several ways: for example, money and space for intense planning and evaluation sessions for the partnership; modems and/or software for electronic communication; support for consultants on designing, implementing, and evaluating the professional development school as it serves to improve both school learning and teacher development. These are ways in which the local private sector community can participate. Larger collaboratives such as the Michigan Partnership (Lanier, 1989) at Michigan State University and the Center for Educational Renewal (Goodlad, 1991) at the University of Washington have been established with the help of more nationally viewed foundations such as the Kellog Foundation and the Exxon Education Foundation. These kinds of collaborations focus on change in schools and teachers' development: The Michigan Partnership is directed toward change in a state, while the Center for Educational Renewal has a more national focus. Local, state, and nationally focused collaborative projects where the public and private sectors work together will be successful in establishing professional development schools as a permanent project for continued reflection and renewal for both schools and teacher development.

- One of the greatest needs of coalitions establishing professional development schools is understanding how the coalitions work and if professional development schools actually work. While there are indications that such collaborations are successful and that partnerships between public education, K-12, and teacher development actually work (See as examples, Clark & LaLonde, 1992; Dixon & Ishler, 1992; Mellgren & Caye, 1989; Rushcamp & Roehler, 1992; Winitzky, Stoddart, & O'Keefe, 1992), much more evidence is needed. Where there is expertise and where a specific collaborative agenda has been set for the professional development school, the partners must seek sources to support the research and evaluation of the professional development school concept in order to contribute to a knowledge base on this issue. Such resources may be found within federal government agencies; government foundations; or in private foundations on a local, regional, or national level, but in the economic climate of the moment are relatively scarce. Yet, contribution of the collaborative of school, university, and business partnership(s) to a joint effort, including any funding agency, may attract funders when a single applicant may not. Resources outside the collaborative, specifically because the issue is the creation of an experimental structure, will be difficult to attract; yet we must try.

Emerging Legislative and Licensure Board Policy

Problem. Legislatures and licensing boards will exercise more and more control in the future over policies for the development of professional development schools. This direction comes because it is the view of teachers and the general public that teacher education in higher education is incapable of change and restructuring to meet both current and future needs for quality teaching in schools. Using the state of Minnesota as an example, it appears as though the legislature and the Minnesota Board of Teaching (MBOT) have pre-empted teacher education reformulation on the part of higher education in the state, specifically in regard to internships in professional development schools (Minnesota Board of Teaching, 1992; Wise, Darling-Hammond, Barnett, & Klein, 1987[14]). In other words, the legislature with specific recommendations by the MBOT has given the MBOT authority to procede with a requirement that teacher education at the end of this decade will be accomplished partially with an internship in a professional development school (Education Funding, 1992). The process will evolve through the apppointment of a 25-member advisory task force: faculty from the public and private colleges and universities and from the University of Minnesota, participants from teachers unions and from professional associations of school administrators, principals, parents, students, members of school boards, and people from the community. The advisory committee will advise the MBOT on pilot internship projects that are intended to answer questions such as the impact of such programs on low-income or place-bound persons, cultural diversity, cost implications and benefits for teacher preparing institutions. It will be the responsibility of the MBOT to seek funds both for the pilot programs and for the initial funding of 10-20 and ultimately as many as 200 professional development schools, the latter number may be needed sometime in the early decades of the 21st century as the internship and professional development school policy is implemented. Other changes in licensure and licensure programs are also indicated, but they are not the subject of this discussion.

Possibilities. The development and implementation of such radical changes based on legislative and licensing board action is clearly an important direction for teacher education in the United States. Like national accrediting of teacher education of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), of testing of initially prepared teachers (ETS, 1991), and, of testing for experienced teachers (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1991), state action on professional development schools sets important agendae for the future of teacher education. It is important that schools of education become proactive and critical in dealing with the setting of such agendae. State chapters of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) should also become proactive, political participants in discussions about these directions for teacher education. Such discussions could lead to a shared vision of teacher education on a more local level and simultaneously contribute to an action agenda that will include higher education as part of the solution (see the shared vision document of the Minnesota Board of Teaching, 1986). Very frankly, if schools of education faculty do not become politically engaged in the political process around teacher education, they may lose their major function to others.

Conclusion

In these paragraphs, a context for professional development schools has been delineated that situates this strategy in the history of teacher development and in the current environment of change in school curriculum, school restructuring, and reforms in teacher development. Definition, policy, problems, and possibilities have been examined for professional development schools within the struggle to reformulate both schools and teacher development. In spite of the many difficulties, pitfalls, problems, and lack of resources to establish such an entity within teacher development, the possibilities give professional development schools the potential to contribute to solutions to some of the major problems of schooling and teacher development (see Abdal-Haqq, 1992). It is the collaboration of the public, the schools, and teacher education that can make this concept work. The problems are significant; the possibilities cannot be denied. The challenge of realizing the possibilities is to maintain the dialog among partners, work through the problems, seek solutions, and make the collaboration work.

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Notes

1. Stallings and Kowalski provide more detailed background on laboratory schools, their purpose, functioning, success, and future than can be provided here. However, this section draws on their work and this author's experience as an instructor, and as sometime department chair of modern languages at University High School, University of Minnesota from 1958-68.
2. Some of this section is based on an article by D. J. Tedick, C. L. Walker, D. L. Lange, R. M. Paige, & H. L Jorstad (In press). See list of references.
3. Examples of professional development schools that may apply the Holmes Group definition and principles may be found in Rushcamp & Roehler, Dixon & Ishler, and Clark and LaLonde in the reference section of this paper.
4. There are three working professional practice schools of the AFT model currently operating with the help of both AFT and the Exxon Education Foundation in Rochester, New York, Minneapolis, Minnesota, and Los Angeles, California. The College of Education at the University of Minnesota is working with the Minneapolis Federation of Teachers at Patrick Henry Senior High School in Minneapolis to develop one of these sites. Further information on all of these projects can be obtained by contacting the American Federation of Teachers, 555 New Jersey Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20001.
5. At this point, the comparison of Holmes Group and American Federation of Teachers definitions and principles of professional development/practice schools is intended to show similarities and differences; it is not a critical analysis.
6. "Professional development school" will be used throughout the article to designate both professional development schools according to the Holmes Group or professional practice schools according to the American Federation of Teachers.
7. See Cuban (1987) for further examination of the analogy of professional development school with the teaching hospital. Also see Feinberg (1987) for a discussion of the cultural implications raised by the analogy of restructuring teacher education with a medical model.
8. See chapter 8 for the detailed discussion of the postulates and chapter 9 for a fictional application of the postulates as a whole.
9. Goodlad's definition of the partnership school is not much different from that of the others that we have examined here: "the collaborative selection, maintenance, and development of examplary schools conducted in the best educational interests of children and youths, on one hand, and prospective teachers on the other—with school and university

personnel joined collegially as peers for the advancement of both." (See Goodlad, 1991, p. 326 for a sample agenda for a school-university partnership.)

10. A center for pedagogy is not necessarily a college or school of education. It is a center which is devoted to the development of teaching and teachers with its own budget, control over its facilities and personnel, including both academic and clinical members, and, autonomy in the selection of students and ability to choose its own partnerships for educational practice. Its connection and partnership with schools is interwoven into its mission. (See Goodlad, 1991, pp. 340-341 for an example of the mission of a ficticious center of pedagogy.)
11. The reader is directed to at least one other excellent resource of review and critique of Holmes Group recommendations (Soltis, 1987).
12. This writer is a member of an advisory committee and management council of two professional development schools in the Minneapolis Public Schools. The management council is for an experimental middle school; its members include students, parents, teachers, community business partners, and university faculty. Students are a very welcome and refreshing source of ideas. The advisory committee relates to a senior high school and designated professional practice school (AFT). It has two parents on a committee consisting of teachers, administrators, and university faculty; the committee is cochaired by a school teacher and a university professor. One of the parents is also a school board member in the Minneapolis Public Schools. These two sets of voices appear to be crucial to the achievement of the missions of both of these schools: the restructuring of teaching and learning for both students and teachers, including teacher education.
13. In many instances, the fee paid by schools of education for supervision of student teachers is between $35 and $100 per student teacher, hardly enough to support the concept of professional development schools.
14. This study on the design of a teaching profession, including the concept of internship, was specifically conducted for the Minnesota Board of Teaching by the Rand Corporation.

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